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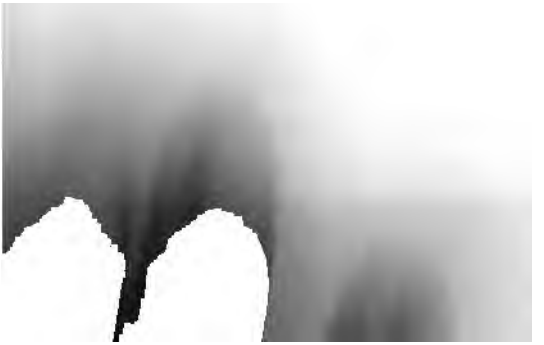

MONITORIAL INSTRUCTION.

AN

ADDRESS,

PRONOUNCED

AT THE OPENING OF THE

NEW-YORK HIGH-SCHOOL,

WITH NOTES AND ILLUSTRATIONS.

BY

JOHN GRISCOM.

"Multum egerunt qui ante nos fuerunt, sed non peregerunt."

SENECA.

New-York:

PRINTED BY MAHLON DAY,

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PREFACE.

An extensive call for information relative to the establishment of the New-York High-School, having rendered it expedient that something should be published explanatory of the general principles on which it is founded, it has been deemed advisable, with this view, to submit to the press, an address delivered to the parents and others, assembled at the opening of the school. In doing this, it was believed to be altogether proper to subjoin such notes and extracts as it was thought would essentially contribute to enlighten the subject. These, it will be perceived, constitute much the greater part of this little volume, and they will doubtless be considered, by the intelligent reader, as the most important part of its contents.

The fund, by which the ground was purchased, and the edifice erected, was raised by a scrip stock, in shares of one hundred dollars; and for the purpose of more general accommodation, these were each divided into shares of twenty-five dollars,—the subscribers having the privilege, in preference to others, of introducing their children and wards. A charter was granted by the Legislature, and the concerns of the school are under the direction of a board of trustees chosen annually by the stockholders.

New-York, 10*th Mo. (Oct.)* 1*st*, 1825.

ADDRESS, &c.

In entering upon the responsible duties of this institution, there seems to be a propriety in exhibiting to its patrons and friends, assembled on this inaugural occasion, some of the views which are entertained by its principals on the subject of general education, and some explanatory remarks upon the system intended to be pursued in the administration which has been assigned them.

We enter upon our task under the most serious impressions of the influence of early education upon the well being of society, and the present and future happiness of the human race. Although we are not believers in the doctrine of a native, essential equality in the capacities of children, but are confirmed in the opinion that the incipient and individual powers of the mind vary with organization, and remain unalterable by the

wisest culture, yet are we abundantly convinced that the evolution of those powers, and the consequent perfection of talent and character, are so influenced by education as to produce by far the greater proportion of that diversity which the world presents.

The term education may in one sense be considered as comprehending the whole train of circumstances, from the cradle to the grave, which influences the mind, the principles, and habits of the man. In this extended sense of the term, who can deny that every human being, in his tastes and his temper, his virtues and his vices, his morals and his religion, is greatly under the dominion of education? Controlled by external circumstances, man is an ignorant savage, or an enlightened philosopher; the worshipper of an idol; a Mahometan, a Christian, or a Jew; a bigot or an infidel;—he is humane and gentle, or vindictive and ferocious; the benefactor or scourge of his kindred race. Many of the elements of this universal education, are beyond the control of parents, teachers, societies, or governments. The child receives impressions, which it cannot resist, from occurrences pre-

sented to the eye, the ear, and the understanding, and which are almost as accidental as the wind that blows. The world itself is a school whose trainings give a hue and tone to all other instructions, and which the fondest assiduity of parents and teachers cannot prevent. But it is encouraging to reflect that in every combat with moral evil, victory always inclines to the virtuous energies of the mind; and, as in the subjugation of the soil to the purposes of agriculture, every good effort lessens the difficulties of those that are to follow, so every judicious extension of moral and intellectual education, diminishes the chances of external evil, ameliorates the condition of society, and elevates the standard of social and national virtue.*

It appears reasonable to believe that there never was a period in the history of the world in which the importance of education was so universally felt, or its principles so well understood as in the present day. The benefits of the inductive philosophy have by no means been confined to physical nature, to the influence of mind over matter;—it

* See note A. Appendix.

is felt in the predominance of more enlarged views of the social relations, and of the means by which the mental and moral strength of society may be increased; and in nothing perhaps have the wisdom and foresight of Lord Bacon been more manifest than in the advantages derived from experimental investigations of metaphysical theories, through the medium of education.

A strict inquiry into the ancient modes of conveying instruction to youth, and a comparison of them with the methods practised in the present day, might indeed lead to the discovery, that among several of the nations of antiquity there were devices which bear no inconsiderable resemblance to the inventions of modern times. But this holds true to an equal, if not greater extent in those discoveries in physical science and inventions of art which have so much distinguished the genius of the present age. Researches into ancient books, and an extended inquiry into the customs of semi barbarous nations, are frequently developing suggestions which might be supposed to have served as germs and prototypes of the noblest discoveries of modern

art. But whatever confirmation such inquiries may lend to the ancient royal declaration that "there is nothing new under the sun," no wise man will question the position, that the application of the Baconian logic to the various branches of human science, or in other words, the pursuit of truth by observation and experiment, has been productive of invaluable benefits to the world, and is still enlarging the bounds of knowledge beyond what the most ardent anticipations of Lord Bacon himself, or any of his contemporaries could possibly have pictured.

In a concern of such vast importance as the right education of youth, and in the present enlightened age of the world, it would seem to be a manifest dereliction of duty on the part of those to whom are assigned the regulation and management of seminaries of learning, to neglect to avail themselves of every useful discovery and improved method which ingenuity and experience have brought to light. If this is true in individual cases and in the limited ordinary schools of neighbourhoods, it becomes of high importance in those large establishments which

are under the control of public agents and on which the country founds its hopes of extensive and lasting benefit. There is probably no better test of the enlightened wisdom of a nation than the extent and sufficiency of its provision for the education of its children. But of the millions which have been appropriated for this object by nations which stand foremost in the rank of civilization, how few are the hundreds which have ever been spent for the purpose of experimental inquiry into the means of ameliorating the prevailing systems of instruction, and of *simplyfying* and *accelerating* the acquisition of knowledge. Governments, which have had the good sense to offer liberal premiums for discoveries in the mechanic arts, and to confer honours on those who extend the bounds of science, have very much neglected the *science* of education. Instructors have been left in general to pursue the beaten track; and while other arts have been fostered and stimulated, the art of teaching is,in thousands of instances, consigned to hands of equal insignificancy to those which are employed

in the mending of shoes, or the shoeing of horses.*

The general concern of literary education must be considered as twofold,—the selection and improvement of the sciences to be taught, and the art of teaching them. Seminaries of learning, conducted with liberal and enlightened views, may contribute to the advancement of both these ends. With respect to the former, we may indeed congratulate ourselves on living in an age in which the sciences have not only attained to a loftier eminence than in any preceding period, but the books in which they are embodied have also undergone a reformation which facilitates, to an incalculable extent, the progress of the student in them. These improvements have arisen in a great degree from the noble spirit of investigation which marks the Baconian philosophy, and which converts the mind of every intelligent, practical man into an instrument of useful observation and a register of useful discovery. The conquests which the sciences have gained, even within the recollection of persons now living, are the subject of almost proverbial re-

* Note B.

mark. Their boundaries and their number are so extended as to render the field of human knowledge too vast for the age and the intellect of any one individual; and hence, to discriminate and select, is the duty of every instructor who consults the welfare of his pupil.

From considerations of this nature, it is obviously of the highest importance, that the period of life usually devoted to study should be managed with great economy, and that those sciences should be selected for each student which are best adapted to his genius, his time, and his future prospects in life. An institution, which shall comprehend a sufficient diversity of study and occupation to adapt it to the varying condition of our youth, and which in all its parts shall be subjected to one regular and permanent system, cannot, it is presumed, but prove to be an acceptable and useful addition to the existing schools of this metropolis.

But, although little has been done through the direct influence of public and specific encouragement in the improvement of the art of teaching, even since the days when the academic groves and porticos of an-

cient Greece resounded with the voices of their celebrated masters, yet, accident and necessity, those fertile sources of instruction, have, from time to time, suggested amendments, by which the routine of schools has been essentially improved, and the paths of knowledge rendered more smooth and inviting. Among those improvements, none are more worthy of notice and commendation than the introduction of the monitorial system or method of mutual instruction;—a system by which much of the teaching both of the master and of the books is imparted through the instrumentality of the scholars themselves.

As it is intended that this mode of instruction shall be pursued in this institution in every branch of learning, as far as it can be brought to bear upon it with practical efficacy, it will not be deemed improper for me to dwell for a short time, on this particular subject.

The merit of having first demonstrated the advantages of this mode of conducting a school, is generally believed to belong to Dr. Andrew Bell and Joseph Lancaster; and there can be no question that both of these

distinguished men are entitled to the plaudits of the civilized world for the ingenuity with which they perfected their respective systems, and more especially for the indefatigable zeal and perseverance with which they extended the knowledge of their methods, and brought them into practical operation on so wide a scale. It is not to be supposed, however, that a method which economises so well the time of school instruction, and multiplies the power of the master, was never thought of, or practised, prior to the experiment at Madras, or that of the Borough-Road. Almost every teacher of ability whose reputation had drawn around him forty, fifty, or more scholars, must have perceived the advantage of employing the more advanced pupils in giving instruction, to a certain extent, to those below them, and thus enlarging his own attentions and saving that time which would otherwise have been sacrificed without profit. The experimen' of Dr. Bell at Madras was undoubtedly pr or that of Lancaster at London; but the fir efforts of the latter appear evidently to hav been made without a knowledge of the fo mer; and although in his first publicat'

Lancaster acknowledged that he had derived much benefit from Dr. Bell's hints, yet his subsequent arrangements differed so materially in their subordinate mechanism from the Madras invention, few persons who have inquired into the history of both systems, will hesitate to admit that he is entitled to the merit of an inventor, and eminently of a public benefactor. But neither of these meritorious individuals was the first to demonstrate that a large school can be most advantageously managed by a systematic adoption of monitorial or mutual instruction. This had previously been proved in several instances in France, and especially at Paris in 1785, by the Chevalier Paulet. This instructor, aided by the liberality of the king, Louis XVI., placed his institution not only under the operation of the monitorial system, but established the trial by jury, so highly recommended by Dr. Bell.* The documents in my possession furnish various other evidences of this practice; but either from the effect of popular prejudice, or from the want of a more exact and better organized system of management, so clearly defined

* Note C.

as to be perfectly intelligible from description, and easily communicated to those who might wish to put it in practice, the examples alluded to were lost upon the public, and the monitorial methods fell into disuse, until revived by the ingenuity and perseverance of Bell and Lancaster. Nor is it probable, that the complete success of these philanthropists in their respective establishments, nor their untiring ardour in propogating the knowledge of their systems, would have been sufficient to surmount the force of customs strengthened by immemorial usage, and to establish these new methods on a permanent foundation, had not their extraordinary effects been witnessed and duly appreciated by a few individuals of corresponding benevolence, and equally ardent in whatever concerns the improvement and happiness of their fellow-creatures. It was in this way that the British and Foreign School Society for promoting the Lancasterian System, and the National Society for advancing that of Dr. Bell were formed and organized; and such has been their influence, there is now not a single country within the limits of perfect civilization where

schools of monitorial instruction are not established; and none in the enjoyment of a free government where the system is not spreading with a force and acceptance truly remarkable.

A brief sketch of the condition of the monitorial schools in this city and country, and in some other parts of the world, will not be regarded as incompatible with the objects of the present meeting; for however well known the history of this system may be to those who have devoted their attention to it, and kept pace with its advancement, it cannot be questioned, that both its merits and its progress are unknown to a large proportion of those, who, as parents and heads of families, are individually interested in the subject of education.

Of the schools under the exclusive direction of the Free School Society of this city, there are at present eleven, which comprehended, at the time of the last annual report of the trustees, (April, 1824,) 4384 scholars, being an increase of 540 pupils within the preceding year. These schools are all taught upon the Lancasterian System, and the estimation in which they are held by the Cor-

poration and magistrates of the city, who have ever taken a deep interest in their prosperity, by members of the Legislature, and by many other intelligent citizens, who have recently visited them, was never, it is fully believed, higher than at the present moment. "The trustees," says the last report of their Board, "renew their congratulations to the "Society, upon the continued success which "has, during the past year, attended the "Lancasterian System of Education. They "think they do not deceive themselves, when "they express their entire conviction, that "the improvement of the scholars, attend-"ing the New-York Free Schools, in the "ordinary branches of education, will com-"pare favourably with that of the best com-"mon schools in our city or country. The "trustees invite the Society, and the public "generally, to visit the schools, and witness "the improvement of the scholars. The "advantages of the Lancasterian System of "Education, are not manifested solely in "the rapid improvement of the children in "their literary studies, but they are taught "by it, habits of cleanliness, subordination, "and order. In a well-regulated school of

" this description, all the operations are con-
" ducted agreeably to the most nicely regu-
" lated system: the boys who prove them-
" selves worthy, are chosen to fill places of
" trust and authority over other boys; so
" that it may be safely affirmed, that a boy
" educated agreeably to this system, cannot
" fail to be made practically acquainted with
" the elementary principles of civil govern-
" ment, and thereby preeminently qualified
" to become a good citizen."*

These remarks of a Board of Trustees, comprised of citizens of the highest respectability, and at the head of which, as president of the Free School Society, is the present enlightened chief magistrate of the State, cannot fail to have their due weight upon the mind of every unbiased citizen, and to afford sufficient demonstration of the undiminished credit and efficacy of the system of instruction which they have adopted. As a proof of the entire correctness of the last remark which has been quoted, it has often been observed, that of the 20,000 children which have frequented the Lancasterian Free-Schools of this city, very few

* Note D.

indeed have been convicted before our courts of justice for crime or misdemeanour; and in the few cases which have occurred, they were children noted for great irregularity of attendance, and for the formidable habits of vice and insubordination which they were suffered to contract at home.*

Besides the eleven schools now under the care of the Free-School Society, there are two belonging to the Female Association, containing about 600 scholars, and both monitorial; two for coloured children upon the same system, and both in the highest repute. One of them, (the male school,) has been generally considered as inferior to none in the city, for the excellency of its order,

* When it is remembered, that the children which attend the Free-Schools are taken from the most indigent classes of a populous city, whose prisons and police courts are seldom exempt from the charge of boys and girls of different ages, committed for vagrancy or petty crimes, the fact above stated must be considered as a high eulogium upon the moral influence of the discipline of those schools. The establishment of the House of Refuge, where those youthful offenders are compelled to enter upon a course of instruction and labour, has already produced the happy effect of lessening the number of juvenile crimes and commitments.

and the rapid improvement of its pupils. To these fifteen schools, all conducted not only with undiminished but increasing respectability, may be added eight or ten others, belonging to the different religious societies of the city, some of them large, and all, it is believed, managed upon the monitorial system, either of Bell or Lancaster, or a modification of them, and this with a decided preference, derived from experience, over the former and ordinary methods of instruction.

Such are the evidences of the continued reputation, and increasing activity of the monitorial system in the city of New-York; and if we turn our attention to the interior of the State, we find that a Lancasterian School is supported in each of the towns of Poughkeepsie, Hudson, Albany, Troy, Schenectady, Utica, and perhaps, some other places. Several of these schools, agreeably to the last lucid Report of the Acting Superintendent of Common Schools, are large, and it is reasonable to conclude, satisfactory and promising.

In the eastern section of the United States, the adoption of the monitorial sys-

tem, though much less extensive than in this city and in Philadelphia, in consequence of the established order and good regulation of the schools prior to the introduction of this system into the country, has been attended in every case where it has been adopted and placed in competent and skilful hands, with a success equally flattering and satisfactory. In New Haven, a place where enlightened views of education have long prevailed, a Lancasterian School has been for some time established, and the Committee of that district in their Report, dated the 29th of November last, in reference to that school, make the following remarks :—

"The whole number of scholars who have "attended the Lancasterian School, during "the year past has been 409; the present "number is about 270. In this school, boys "from six to fourteen years of age have been "instructed; and the committee take great "satisfaction in being able to say, that the "pupils in this school have made very good "progress in the various studies pursued by "them, and have given very general satis-"faction, not only to the committee, but to "others who have visited the school. In-

"deed, the committee feel themselves justi-
"fied in stating, that at no period since its
"establishment, has the situation of this
"school been as flourishing, as it respects
"the progress made by the pupils, as it is at
"the present time. The committee under-
"stand that the examining committee were
"highly gratified with the appearance and
"proficiency of the boys in this school, and
"they regret that they cannot furnish the dis-
"trict with a report of that committee in re-
"lation to this and the other schools exa-
"mined by them. Mr. Lovel, (the teacher,)
"has very obligingly furnished the commit-
"tee with a particular statement of the va-
"rious branches taught in the Lancasterian
"School, and the number of boys engaged
"in each branch which will be found in the
"following table." This table comprehends, in addition to the rudiments of learning, writing on paper, arithmetic, geography, grammar, elocution, ornamental writing, and making of maps. The Report adds, "there
"have been three teachers qualified at this
"school the year past, who are now super-
"intending schools in other places which
"are in a flourishing condition. One of the

"pupils who was formerly the monitor gene-
"ral of this school, (Sidney Smith,) is now
"employed as an assistant in a similar school
"at Providence, with great credit to himself,
"as well as to the institution in which he
"was educated." The editor of the Connecticut Journal in an article (Nov. 30th,) on the subject of common schools, says, "In "fact, until the Lancasterian School was es-
"tablished in New Haven, under Mr. Lovel,
"we had no system at all, and every citizen
"will now bear witness to the very great im-
"provement, not only in their studies, but
"in the manner and general conduct of the
"boys of New Haven even in the streets.
"Such is the effect of correct discipline, and
"of habits of application to study formed
"under a faithful and skilful instructor."*

* *Governor* WOLCOTT, in his last message to the Legislature of Connecticut, May, 1825, has the following paragraphs:—

"Happily the system of Monitorial or Lancasterian schools comes to our aid at a time, when, I trust, we are prepared to receive it. It has been sufficiently adopted in this country, to enable every well informed person to judge of its tendencies and principles. It is well known, that it has effected a highly beneficial change in the habits, character, and intelligence of the youth of New-

In the town of Providence, I have the best authority for stating, that the monitorial system is making its way with great acceptance,

Haven. Those who have passed through a regular course, are well educated young men, prepared to enter on the duties of active life. This system is diffusing over the city of New-York, where it affords indisputable evidence of its beneficial effects, training youth to a love of order and virtue, inspiring their minds with self-regard, religious and moral sentiments, industry, justice, and a reverence for the laws; repressing juvenile errors, and preparing the mass of population, in a scene where lately great dangers existed, to support those pure manners and correct principles, upon which the conservation of republican governments must, in a very few years, entirely depend.

"If funds can be obtained to defray the expenses of the necessary preparations, I have no doubt, that schools, on the Lancasterian model, ought as soon as possible to be established in several parts of this State. The buildings should be constructed, by our architects, of permanent materials; such plans, as experience has recommended, can be readily obtained from New-York;—instructors are constantly forming; and wherever, from two hundred to one thousand children can be convened within a suitable distance, this mode of instruction, in every branch of reading, speaking, penmanship, arithmetic, and book-keeping, will be found much more efficient, direct, and economical, than the practices now generally pursued in our primary schools. These branches of knowledge, in themselves, constitute a good education, and it is

even in some of the more elevated branches of learning; and in Boston, in the several schools in which it has been introduced and

their great recommendation, that the Lancasterian mode can be readily conformed to our principles, habits, and present usages.

"Between our common schools, and an academic education in our colleges, our laws recognize an intermediate grade, or "school of a higher order," which each of the school societies are authorised to establish by a vote of two-thirds of the inhabitants present in a legal meeting warned for that purpose. One such school was formerly required to be established in each county town; but this grade has been, in a great measure, if not wholly superseded in practice by academies and other voluntary associations, some of which have been incorporated by law; that they have been highly advantageous and honourable to the State is well known, and I think that they merit every public encouragement which can be afforded.

"By the progress of science in our country, institutions are gradually forming, which are designed to promote every branch of useful knowledge, with appropriate applications to the minds of young men of the principles of mathematics, chemistry, geology, mineralogy, botany, zoology, and natural philosophy. By a knowledge of these sciences, they become intelligent agriculturists, machinists, manufacturers, architects, and civil and military engineers, and they accomplish all these purposes without neglecting the duties of morality and religion.

"It is manifest that these establishments require spacious buildings, libraries, models, and specimens, and to some

practised with judgment, it succeeds to the satisfaction of its friends and patrons.*

In Philadelphia there are seven or eight schools conducted upon the system of mutual instruction,—some of which are very large and ably managed. The system is patronised by the commissioners of public schools, and stands at present in as high repute as it ever has done. Having visited several of these schools about two months ago, I can speak with certainty of the reputation in which they are held.

In the Southern and Western States, the

of them, costly machines and apparatus are indispensable, to enable the professors to communicate instruction. The resources for combining them, can only be supplied by contributions of public or private wealth; all that can reasonably or justly be expected from our scientific men, is, that when they are furnished with necessary materials they will freely communicate their knowledge, and await rewards for their time and the previous expenditures which attended their own education, from a free and open competition for public patronage."

* A gentleman of Boston, of distinguished literary acquirements, informed me, that a ladies' pay school which he with some others had taken an interest in establishing, had about eighty scholars, taught upon this system with a success which fully justifies the expectation of its permanency and prosperity.

same efficient system has made its way, (in some places, through much opposition,) and schools are now supported in most of the large towns with increasing respectability and utility to the public.

In some few places, it is very possible that attempts to establish Lancasterian or other monitorial schools, may have failed, and that a few of such schools, or those bearing the name, after struggling for a precarious existence, may have been finally relinquished. This is no more than what must naturally have been expected by the most zealous advocates of the system; for what scheme of public good can be named, however correct and sound its principles, that is not liable, when undertaken with *inadequate* means, and managed by *incompetent* hands, to experience an utter failure? It is true that many excellent and well devised plans of public benefit, from a concurrence of uncontrolable causes, prove unsuccessful;—but from the facts which have been stated, I trust there are none who will not infer, that the monitorial scheme of instruction, so far from having sunk into disrepute in the United States, is held at the present moment in

higher estimation than at any preceding period, and is making its way to a far more extensive adoption and influential practice.

If we turn our attention to Europe, we have abundant evidence of similar success. The report of the British and Foreign School Society, for 1823, states the number of schools in the metropolis to be 57, containing upwards of 900 children. The model school in the Borough Road, London, had alone instructed since its first establishment in 1798, 22,026 scholars. It contains 500 boys and 300 girls "and though there are "many other schools," says the report, "within a moderate distance, the number "on the books is always full, and at this "time upwards of 100 are waiting for admis- "sion. Thousands of the rising generation "are at the present time acquiring know- "ledge of the most valuable kind, by means "of individuals who were prepared for la- "bour in these central schools, and who are "to be found in almost all parts of the world "zealously engaged in their useful and im- "portant undertaking."

In addition to the unabated efforts of the

parent society, there are auxiliary societies in several of the large towns of England whose agency is very influential in promoting Lancastérian Schools in the minor towns and villages; and it may, I believe, be safely asserted, that there are few towns of any note in England that has not its monitorial school upon the plan either of Bell or Lancaster, and in many towns schools are established and well supported on both these system. In Scotland, the new system has made a less conspicuous progress than in England, but this is unquestionably owing to the superior previous condition of the primary and parochial schools in that country, which rendered a change less necessary; and among a people whose habits are much averse to fluctuations, the adoption of any new scheme was much less to be expected. Nevertheless, the system of Lancaster (and probably that of Bell) is making its way in Scotland. The Edinburgh Review long ago gave the sanction of its authority to the excellence of these systems; and in one place at least, viz. Inverness, a Society is established for promoting the system, which

two years ago had 35 schools under its notice containing 1524 scholars.*

But the most remarkable and cheering instance of the rapid progress of this invaluable system occurs in Ireland. A "Society for promoting the education of the poor in Ireland," commenced its operations about the year 1814, by establishing a monitorial school in Kildare-street, Dublin, for the double purpose of aiding in the education of the children of that metropolis, and of serving as a model school for the training of masters, for other schools throughout the country. By the generous efforts of the society aided by the bounty of government, assistance has been liberally extended to other schools throughout Ireland, by furnishing masters, giving instruction in the mode of teaching, and by supplying utensils, lessons, books, &c. The number of schools which the society has thus assisted and put into train, has increased in a rapid progression since the year 1817, when the number was only 8, to 1824, when the number of schools under the society's notice was 1122, comprising 79,287 scholars;—so rapidly and

* Note E.

easily does this beneficent system extend itself, under proper management, and so agreeably does it fall in with the inclinations of youth when properly trained to a comprehension and experience of its nature and advantages. The model school of this society in Dublin, appeared to me, in 1819, to be the best monitorial school I had seen in Europe. The number of masters which that society has trained since its opening is 633. And further to aid the cause of education, they commenced in 1817 the publication and sale of cheap books, adapted to the entertainment and moral improvement of children. Fifty varieties of these books have been issued, and a total number of volumes, since the commencement of 784,640.

Of the progress and success of the National Society of England, whose schools are upon the system of Dr. Bell, and whose aim is to extend the benefits of education in connexion with the church service, I cannot speak with much precision; but it is well known that the schools of this establishment are numerous, and I find it stated in an abstract of the report of 1823, that 77 new schools had been received

into the union since the preceding report, and that within the year, twenty-one masters had been trained, (two of which were for classical schools,) and eleven mistresses, and that 14 schools had been supplied with permanent masters, and nine with permanent mistresses. Upon the whole, as it respects Great Britain and Ireland, there is abundant authority for the remark of the British and Foreign School Society in their 18th Report, that "The system of mutual instruction does not "shrink from investigation, but on the con- "trary invites it. Your committee are per- "suaded, (they add,) that the more closely "its pretensions are examined, the more res- "plendent its merits will appear, and that, "like the pure gold in the furnace, it will lose "nothing by the trial."

In inquiring into the progress of this system on the continent of Europe, we discover the most unequivocal evidences of the confidence which enlightened and liberal minded men of almost every nation place in its efficacy as a moral and intellectual engine of extraordinary power, and therefore worthy of the sanction and patronage of all free governments. In Paris a society has been

some years in existence for promoting the system in France; and in the early stages of its career it was exceedingly successful, several hundred schools were established, and the government seemed disposed to lend its aid to a scheme which promised to rescue the lower classes from the deplorable ignorance in which they are too generally involved. But, unhappily, the demon of superstition and bigotry, the legitimate guardian of despotic power, seems latterly to have shed its withering influence upon the labours of this society, among whom were too many of the class of LIBERALES to suit the taste of those in authority. The cry of danger to the Catholic Church has been listened to, the schools have to struggle under the weight of clerical displeasure, and the society seems to be threatened with annihilation. The spirit of the system has, notwithstanding, proved to be congenial with the tastes of the French people; many of the schools were in excellent order, and some parts of the general scheme of mutual instruction have been improved by the ingenuity and learning of the Savans of that country.

A society exists at Florence, for the pro-

motion of the monitorial system, which has under its patronage several large and well conducted schools, and a number of the most eminent of the nobility and learned men of Tuscany are deeply interested in the extension and prosperity of these schools.

Schools upon this plan, are established in all the Ionian Islands, in one of which, (St. Maura) alone are 12 schools.

In Switzerland, at least in some of the more liberal cantons, the system is in high repute and successful operation.

In St. Petersburgh, a model school for 200 boys, has been patronized by the emperor, by an annual donation of 7000 rubles, and Count Romanzoff is spreading the system in the villages of his vast estates.

In Sweden there are now 67 schools on the Lancasterian plan, of which 13 are in the capital. Twenty-two were established during the year 1823.

The same system is making progress in the Netherlands, in Denmark, in the Island of Malta, in British India, in Canada, Nova-Scotia, Newfoundland, Bermuda, the West Indies, in several parts of Africa, and is now

receiving the decided support of most of the newly established and free governments of South America.*

It bids fair to become the favourite child of science and philanthropy throughout the habitable globe; and the great moral engine by which the streams of knowledge will be bountifully distributed, wherever there is human intellect to receive them—wherever there are hearts to feel, and minds to comprehend.

In the present stage of the progress of this system, the only question which can admit of controversy, is the advantage of its application to the higher branches of knowledge,—to the acquisition of foreign languages,—to mathematics—to philosophy—history,—the belles-lettres, &c.

The principles upon which much of the

* It is well known, that Joseph Lancaster himself is now in Columbia, engaged in the propagation of his system, under the liberal support of the authorities there; and that President Bolivar, who has travelled in Europe, and is without doubt well acquainted with the merits of the system, has lately granted him $20,000, to assist him in his operations, with the promise of a larger sum when it may be necessary.

practice of this institution will be founded, rest upon the belief, that in a large school, all knowledge whatever, which boys can be made thoroughly to understand, either by the force of their own application to the books, or by the instructions of the master, can, to a certain extent, be usefully imparted by these juvenile proficients, to those who are below them in acquirement, and that by this arrangement a very great proportion of the time of the inferior scholars may be rescued from idleness or mischief, the attentions of the master greatly multiplied, and the knowledge of the monitors themselves expanded, confirmed, and perfected by the practice of communicating it to others. *Qui docet, discit.* (He who teaches, learns,) is probably as true a maxim in its application to young people, as ever was uttered. We do conceive, that any kind of knowledge which can be thoroughly acquired by a boy of good parts at the age of 13 or 15 years, can be as easily conveyed by him to another, as a knowledge of the lowest elements, can be imparted by a lad of 6 or 9, to children who are his inferiors. Can any reason be assigned why a boy who is completely mas-

ter of quadratic equations, should not be able to instruct others in the inferior parts of algebra, as effectually as a boy who understands the single rule of three, could superintend an operation in multiplication, division, or reduction? In all cases, where actual superiority of acquirement exists, we see no reason for believing why it cannot be imparted as easily in the higher as in the lower departments of knowledge; why, *cæteris paribus*, trigonometry should not be as readily taught as long division, algebra as vulgar fractions, the propositions of Euclid as the intricacies of exchange, the declension of Latin, Greek, French, and Spanish nouns and the conjugation of the verbs as easily as those of the mother tongue, and the same in other sciences; presuming in all cases, that boys are never set to hear the exercises of others, or to give them instruction, in what they do *not well understand themselves.* Of this it will always be in the power of the master, by private and special examinations, to be fully satisfied, and to establish beyond a doubt.*

But, it would be entertaining a very erroneous and unjust opinion of the mo-

* Note F.

nitorial system, to suppose, that any one scholar or any one branch of learning is to be consigned *exclusively* to the agency of *monitors.* The time and attentions of the master in each department are devoted to his school, his instructions are delivered wherever they are most needed, all the peculiarly difficult and nicer parts of the preceptorial office are retained in his own hands, his prælections in philosophy, in the sciences, in the peculiarities and beauties of classic authors, in all the higher parts of language, and in short, in all the more elevated branches taught in the institution, will include whatever is deemed to be necessary to complete the courses of instruction, in which the monitors are only to be employed as assistants and coadjutors. And it must be obvious to every reflecting mind, that by assigning to well qualified monitors, all the current and subordinate parts of the daily recitations, the master will have far more time which he can devote to those instructions which demand his greater skill and experience; and, that by this means those pupils who are advancing toward the completion of the higher divisions of study, will reap a greater share of

benefit from the attentions of the master, than they could possibly do, were the whole, even of a moderately large school to be entirely dependent, in all its diversified parts, upon the quickness of his eye and ear.

But this, though a very important advantage is not the greatest which the system affords. The spirit of emulation which it introduces, the vivacity and sprightliness which accompany its movements, the ambition which every noble minded boy will feel to become the monitor of his class, and to rise in gradation from class to class, the fear which the monitors themselves will be under of losing their places, in consequence of the appeal which ever lies open from his decision to the master, by every boy in the class, give to this system, when properly managed, an activity, industry, and vigour, which a school under the direction of a master and hired assistants alone, cannot easily acquire. This was the happy discovery of Dr. Bell. He was acting as superintendent of a large school at Madras, composed of the mixed children of British residents. As the only means, which occurred to him, of conducting the school without too great fatigue and

labour to himself, he hired a number of young men to assist him, each supposed to be qualified in the branch which he undertook. But he found himself, in the course of time, involved in perplexity. Either the defective knowledge, or the defective attentions of these agents gave rise to uneasiness and disputes, which deprived the superintendent of the satisfaction which he had hoped to derive from a well ordered school, and impeded the progress of his scholars. After struggling for some time with this difficulty, he resolved to try the expedient of employing the best scholars as assistants to the others, and encouraging every scholar by affording him the chance of becoming, by industry and perseverance, the teacher or assistant of his class. Immediately the spell was broken. This new scheme operated as a charm, as little expected in the complete remedy which it afforded for all prior difficulties as in the surprising effects which resulted from it in the order and discipline of the school, and the extraordinary progress of the scholars. These happy effects continued during the whole of Dr. Bell's superintendency, (which was several years,) and were

such as to excite the astonishment of every intelligent visiter. A common expression, on observing the rapid improvement which the pupils had made, was, "Tell it not in "England, for no one there will believe it." But a similar success has since been abundantly realised in almost all parts of the world, both upon the Bell and Lancasterian systems, and may be realised every where, if schools are planned and conducted with the same enlightened zeal which inspired those genuine disciples of the inductive philosophy.*

That the views which I have taken of the superior fitness of the monitorial scheme, for instruction in the higher as well as lower branches of knowledge, can be proved to the entire satisfaction of every unprejudiced mind, by a reference to actual experiments in England, France, and Scotland, there can no longer be a doubt.†

It remains for me to point out some of the principal details of the course of education intended to be pursued in the present Institution; but having already taken up so much of the time of this respectable au-

* Note G. † Note H.

dience, I am compelled to use as much brevity as possible in these details.

The New-York High-School, as you have already been apprised, is to consist of three principal departments, viz : the Introductory, the Junior, and the Senior. The first of these departments will, it may be presumed, ever be an object of affectionate interest with the trustees and patrons of the Institution. It is intended to receive children of the earliest age, and to introduce them, by gentle steps, and by allurements best suited to their infant tastes, to the portals of learning; and by such devices as experience shall suggest to secure their ardour in advancing along the gradations of the temple, until we have excited in them a genuine relish of its beauties and a manly thirst for the treasures it contains.

It will be difficult to assign the lowest age at which children will be admissible to this department; but we perceive no objection to their being introduced as soon as they can walk and pronounce with tolerable distinctness, words which are repeated to them, and have sufficient vivacity to notice what is passing around them. Their physi-

cal comforts, as needful not only to the promotion of health, but to the uninterrupted developement of the mental faculties, will be carefully attended to. Their intermissions from study will be frequent, and order, and entertainment, and healthful exercise introduced into their sports. The first literary exercise to be given them is writing. With a chalk pencil on a black table, or with a stick in white sand, they will imitate the letters of the alphabet, both printed and written; and simultaneously with their progress in spelling will be their advancement in writing by means of the chalk and slate pencil, thus rendering the motions of the hand, and their natural proneness for action an auxiliary to the mind and memory. As we can perceive no objection to the practice, it is intended at this early stage, to introduce easy lessons in drawing, and to encourage by occasional instruction, that turn which is so natural to children, of endeavouring to make graphic delineations of objects which attract their notice. This practice will be continued through the different departments, but limited probably to line drawing, as the main object is to

strengthen the judgment with respect to correct proportion, figure, attitude, dimensions, and distance, and at the same time to render the hand expert in tracing resemblances. A talent of this kind is deemed to be of far greater importance in a variety of occupations, than is generally imagined. But, should our pupils toward the conclusion of their course, wish to go more extensively and completely into the art of drawing, they can be gratified by incurring the additional expense occasioned by the employment of a master.

As a relief to the occupations of learning the alphabet, spelling, reading, and writing, and as beneficial to the mind even in those early stages of its advancement, it is intended to introduce the first and easiest notions of Arithmetic. To learn to count, 10, 20, 30, and so on to 100, is surely as easy to a child at any age, as to learn in succession the 24 letters; and by the aid of sensible objects, the first ideas of addition, subtraction, and other primary rules, may be advantageously introduced, and the little scholar be advancing in mental arithmetic at the same time that he is making progress in

the art of spelling or reading. We hold it also to be very possible to mingle with those infantile pursuits, some instructions in Geography or Topography, so far at least as to smooth the introduction to that branch of study on their admission to the higher departments.

There is still another branch of instruction which it is in contemplation to introduce into our lowest department, and which, but for the expense and fatigue it may involve, might be rendered highly profitable to the understanding, moral feelings, and dispositions of our youthful charge. I mean that knowledge which may be so readily and effectually communicated through the medium of well chosen pictures. Not only several of the branches of Natural History, but a great variety of the most interesting objects and scenery of the globe, and many of the operations and productions of art, may thus be rendered intelligible to very young capacities; while at the same time the sentiments of love and reverence for the Deity, of kindness and benevolence towards the various objects of his bountiful creation, and an utter reprobation of cruelty, revenge,

and most of the evil passions, may be strongly inculcated. Transparent paintings, executed for this purpose, would be most desirable, and will be provided to an extent proportionate to the encouragement we receive.

It is thus that we hope to render our introductory department a place where parents who are the most scrupulous with respect to the welfare of their tender offspring, may send them to spend half their wakeful hours, with an assurance of safety and a confidence of benefit, superior to the chances of the nursery, the kitchen, or places to which they are ordinarily consigned.*

In the junior department, the pupils commence with writing upon paper, and they will enter substantially and systematically upon the study of Arithmetic, Geography, and English Grammar. For the important art of Penmanship, those will be well prepared who have passed through the lower department, by the just notions they will have acquired of the forms and proportions of the letters and by their use of the slate pencil. It is designed to initiate them in

* Note K.

this department into the art of *making* and *mending*, as well as of handling their pens. This is a branch of the art of greater importance to the improvement of scholars in penmanship, than seems to be generally imagined, if we may be allowed to judge from its too common neglect. The difficulties which attend the practice of giving minute instruction in this art in common schools, are very considerable. They can be effectually surmounted, in a large school, only by monitorial instruction. We shall endeavour, as far as possible in both our higher departments, to render the boys dependent on their own skill for the goodness of their pens, and we trust that parents, sensible of the advantage, will cheerfully incur the small expense of the additional and unavoidable waste of quills, which may be thus occasioned.

Arithmetic will be taught in this department as far as through the rules of proportion, embracing of course most of the principles upon which the science in its various applications, essentially depends. This very important branch of knowledge, cannot, we are aware, be laid with too much

care in the understandings and memories of children. The art of ready reckoning, or of performing calculations rapidly in the mind, without the aid of pen or pencil, forms a most valuable and interesting part of the instructions which children ought to receive. This mental arithmetic may be carried to an extent, truly surprising to those not accustomed to observe it. We have seen a class of girls, whose ages average not more than nine, by the force of memory and a few plain rules, multiply seven or eight figures by an equal number, enumerate and announce accurately the product, amounting to quintillions, and then extract the square root of this large product, and state the root and the remainder, without varying a figure from the truth. The most valuable extent of this mental process which I ever witnessed, was in a class of monitors of one of the largest Lancasterian schools that has ever been erected; and it can scarcely be doubted that a system of instruction which constantly limits the attention of one instructer or monitor to a class of eight or ten scholars, and thus facilitates a rapid continuation of individual exercise, is the most favourable

for implanting habits of attention, clearness of comprehension, and accuracy of execution, which has ever been devised.

Geography, which in the lower department can only be considered as an amusement, will be pursued in this, upon that system which can alone be effectual a constant reference to the maps. Considering it improper in the early study of geography, to mingle it, as is often done, with scraps of history, politics, manners, and peculiarities of nations, we shall confine our boys of the junior department, to an acquaintance with geographical features alone, and shall use scarcely any other books than those which serve as guides to the maps. A plentiful supply of maps will of course be considered as of the first importance.

English Grammar will be commenced in this department and continued as far as the syntax of our language. It matters not how early, after they have learned to read fluently, children begin the study of grammar, provided they are taught strictly upon the principles of analysis, and advanced no faster than their *understandings* will carry them. To distinguish the alphabet into vowels and

consonants, and to select from a few plain sentences, all the nouns, verbs, and adjectives, are exercises which very young children can soon be taught to take pleasure in, and to give good reasons for the judgments which they form. As a mental exercise therefore, as well as the means of laying the foundation of an important branch of knowledge, the study of grammar should, we think, be thus early introduced.

Reading and Elocution will receive due attention in the junior class, and it is within the scope of our intention, to extend to the pupils of this department, the advantage to be derived from an illustration of natural and sensible objects by pictures and other illustrations.

In the senior department, the preceding studies will be perfected. Arithmetic will be extended to its highest rules and applications; geography to the theory and construction of maps, to its dependencies upon, and connexion with, astronomy, history, and antiquities; with geology and mineralogy, with climate, seasons, the productions of the earth, and the varieties and habits of the human race.

Grammar will be advanced so as to include all the minutia of syntax, prosody, punctuation, style, &c. and the important subject of our own language will be pursued by the study of Rhetoric and Belles-lettres, and by the art and practice of Composition, and Elocution. In this department, the different branches of Mathematics, pure and applied, will receive that attention which their importance demands, and we hope that in the applications of Geometry and Trigonometry to the measurement of land and other things, we shall be able to aid our pupils by actual experiments. It is our intention to provide for the wishes of every class of students in the mathematical branches, and to assist them with the use of instruments to the very extent which our means will justify us in proceeding.

An institution destined like the present to receive boys from the nursery, and to prepare them for the various spheres of busy and useful life, would be incomplete in the present state of the physical sciences, without the means of initiating them into the interesting principles of natural philosophy, chemistry, and natural history. The greater

part of these very comprehensive portions of knowledge can be effectually taught only by the aid of experiments and specimens; and while we profess to furnish the means of carrying our students with advantage through most of those subjects, we do it with the understanding, that it must be chiefly by the devotion of *extra hours* of instruction and study, and with the confidence, that for the additional expence and labour which those enlarged means will require, there will be an adequate gratification in the affluence of our numbers, and the good will of those who are the best able to judge of the nature and utility of our institution.

The study of the languages of Greece and Rome, will receive that uniform and persevering attention, which a just appreciation of the importance of classic literature, and the comprehensiveness of our establishment necessarily call for. Fully persuaded that the important aid which the monitorial system has the power to render to instructions in the classics, has been proved to demonstration in the High-School of Edinburgh, in the Charter-House in London, and in various establishments in France and England, that system will

be applied to Latin and Greek in the arrangements to be adopted, to the full extent of which experience shall prove the advantage, and no further. The same may be said of the French and Spanish languages. As two of the most popular and extensive living vehicles of thought and mind, these two languages are worthy of particular attention; and we see no reason why every pupil in our superior class not engaged in the ancient languages, may not occupy a portion of his time with French or Spanish. It will be accompanied with no additional cost except that of books, unless attention should be required during the hours of recess from school. The study of either of these languages may be pursued without any detriment to the more essential branches, and with unequivocal benefit to the minds and habits of the students.

I shall refrain from dwelling longer on the literary pursuits of this seminary; but I cannot dismiss my subject, without adverting to one branch of instruction, which it is equally the wish, I believe, of the trustees and principals, to establish, as a constituent part of our general plan, from a conviction of its

advantages to the bodily vigour, and of course to the intellectual strength and activity of our pupils. I allude to *Gymnastics.* For myself, I have long been convinced, that too little attention is paid to the physical education of our children. Independently of that just and full developement which symmetry and beauty require, the enjoyment of the *mens sana* is so evidently connected with the *corpore sano*, as to demand the vigilance of parents and preceptors. I cannot so well express my own opinions on this subject as I find them in the letter of a medical friend in London, to whom I communicated the first prospectus of this institution. "Your new High-School appears to "me to bid fair to be of present and lasting "benefit to the state, and from the respecta- "bility of the share-holders, I presume that "it is already popular. A subject of great "importance connected with the physical "part of education, has recently claimed "some part of my attention; I mean Gym- "nastics; at least that part of the art which "is absolutely necessary for the full develope- "ment, use, and vigour of the muscles of "the body. From more attention than has

"hitherto been paid to this subject in our "schools, I am fully persuaded that many "diseases of the chest might be prevented "in youth, the organs concerned in digestion "kept in more regular and healthful action, "disease of their structure obviated, and re- "mote affections of the brain, &c. guarded "against,—such as are supposed to originate "by sympathy with them. Exercises of this "kind produce a correct attitude and pro- "gression which add materially to our com- "fort, not only in the facility of undergoing, "but also, of relieving the muscular fatigue "arising from our necessary exertions. Disea- "ses of the bones, particularly of the spine, "and of the machinery connected with "them, which become more numerous with "the increase and the spread of wealth, "would, in measure, be obviated, Add to "which they will assuredly promote intellec- "tual vigour, control of passion, and the de- "velopement of correct feelings."*

So far as exercises of this nature can be introduced with advantage, we shall take particular pleasure in promoting them; and we anticipate no difficulty in finding among

* Note L.

our boys those who will be willing and qualified to become monitors, in instructing others in the arts of leaping, climbing, pitching, and in other varieties of muscular skill and exertion.

But a still more interesting branch of manual exercise, is that which is requisite in the use of tools, in the easier parts of carpentry, joinery, casting, turning, &c. We contend for the advantage of employing a portion of the leisure time of boys in employments of this nature; for, whatever may be their destination in life, every hour spent in the use of tools, will add something to that stock of information which may enlarge their sphere of future usefulness, contribute to save them from idleness, and blend most agreeably the *utile* with the *dulce* in the habits of the man. We shall offer to our patrons the means of enabling us to execute our original scheme. As soon as a subscription list will enable us to proceed, we shall erect a series of shops in our north yard, procure tools, and employ a workman to superintend the exercises of such of our youth as choose to enter their names for a course of

instruction during their leisure hours in the mechanic arts.*

To conclude, we enter upon our duties with no presumptive feelings, or extravagant expectations. Aware of the arduous nature of those duties,—of the difficulty of satisfying the views of all, even of the most friendly,—aware of our having to travel in a path untried in this city, or in this country,—and within the notice of those who will narrowly watch, either with hopes or fears, the progress of our labours, we can only trust for the success of our endeavours, to the rectitude of our intentions, to the candour and friendly co-operation of the parents and guardians of our children, and above all, to the favour of that Being, without whose blessing, all human efforts must be exerted in vain.

* Note M.

APPENDIX.

NOTES AND ILLUSTRATIONS.

A.

There is an obvious difference in the views which are entertained, even by some of the most cogent reasoners and best writers in our language, of the potency of education in moulding the faculties and characters of men. If we believe with Locke, that there are no innate ideas whatever, but that the mind is originally "like white paper, void of all characters, without any ideas," or, "not much unlike a closet wholly shut from light, with only some little opening left, to let in external visible resemblances, or ideas of things without;" and with Addison, that "education is to the soul, what the skill of the sculptor is to the statue that lies hid in a block of marble,"—then must we admit that the characters of men are very little, if at all, dependant on themselves, and of course, that we are scarcely to be considered as accountable for conduct that results altogether from opinions or passions conferred upon

us by circumstances over which we have had no control. This indeed is not the conclusion which these great and good men drew from their own premises. They were very far from rejecting the future accountability of man, as taught by the doctrines of Revelation, and especially with so much clearness and authority in the New Testament. They were both believing christians. But there are not wanting others who have given the fullest latitude to the conclusions which such a partial view of the human mind seems naturally enough to encourage; and among these are individuals who entertain the kindest feelings of good will towards their fellow creatures.

That my own views on this important subject may not be mistaken, I quote with satisfaction the following section, from a recent and interesting publication.

"Let us therefore properly understand the office and effect of education. It cannot be to introduce into the mind notions and relations of things which have no affinity to its own nature; to pour into it, as into some passive receptacle, *any sort* of ingredients; to which it is to be considered as perfectly indifferent, as though it had no original tastes or predilections. Instead of having *none*, we find that it has *opposite* or contending tastes or predilections. Hence the office and effect of good education upon the mind must be to enlarge innate capacities and feelings essentially its own, to teach them

to shoot in a virtuous direction, to convey proper nourishment by placing it in the circle of good example, to defend the opening buds of intellect, sensibility, and moral feeling, from every thing that would harm them;—in a word, to encourage the growth of the good seed planted in every mind, and to prevent the growth of evil propensities, and destroy those noxious principles, which, if allowed to spring up, would debase and deform the character. 'To teach the young idea to shoot,' is a beautiful and apt image; but, surely, no one ever thinks that the idea so taught, is some external representation brought incidentally into the mind. I take it to be the *germ of thought* itself. For, as good example could never have effect, if there were not good principles in the mind to attract and cherish it; so bad example could have no effect, if there were not evil propensities to lay hold of it and embrace it. There is, therefore, antecedent to all instruction, a principle or seed, an appetite or affection, with instinctive tendencies towards certain external relations in character and in moral conduct, just as there is in the structure of the eye a congruity to light, or in that of the ear to sounds, long before those organs receive any impressions. Education, therefore, is to the mind, what cultivation is to the plant or seed. It is that methodical training which leads to the gradual evolution and expansion of powers and principles and propensities, connate with the mind, and essential to its constitution. It cannot create new

powers; but as a bad education may increase and cherish evil propensities, and produce bad fruit from the growth of evil seed; so a good education may foster virtuous propensities, and produce good fruit from the evolution of good seed.

"Whatever, therefore, is received from without, must have a connatural affinity with some primary taste, capacity, or feeling within. For, if it have not this affinity or congruity, it can no more be assimilated and appropriated to the mind's improvement, than light can be perceived by the ear, or musical sounds by the eye. Every sense has its peculiar and appropriate object or quality in nature; and so has every appetite and the same may perhaps be said of every passion and emotion.

"Every *internal power* has also its object in its external relations; and external impressions can never produce a practical effect further than they quicken, rouse, and animate the internal power to which they are appropriate, and upon which they act. Hence, by communicating or imprinting new thoughts, we only bring into the mind something possessing a close adaptation in its nature to the constitution of that inherent faculty to which it is applied, analogous to the nourishment which is conveyed to a plant, and assimilated to its substance. The outward senses, I need not repeat, take cognizance of the qualities of matter; the inward faculties, of intellectual abstractions in physics as well as of moral relations in human conduct. Thus, the eye has a

natural affinity for light, the tongue for tastes, and the ear for sounds; and we might as well imagine that discord and harmony, bitter and sweet, oderiferous and putrid effluvia, should make the same impression, prior to experience, or be equally agreeable to their respective organs of sense; as that vice and virtue, right and wrong, truth and falsehood, gratitude and ingratitude, should, when first presented intelligibly to the mind, be indiscriminately and equally acceptable to the internal faculties or principles, which take cognizance of these different relations.

"It must be obvious, then, that virtue is naturally lovely and vice hateful,—and it would be idle to set about explaining what these words mean,—in short that virtuous actions are as universally agreeable, and vicious the contrary, as, to the generality of mankind, sugar is sweet, and gall is bitter. And it is the decree of Heaven and the constitution of human nature which make it so; and which have established these immutable distinctions.

"We are compelled, therefore, to conclude, that there must be original affections, dispositions, talents,—in other words, native seeds, implanted by the Creator, in every mind; without which it might labour in vain upon the imported materials, to fabricate truth and science. But, whatever is thus imported must be congenial to its nature, and possess a fitness and congruity. Thoughts and impressions in the mind, acquired by education, are rather im-

pulses from without, by the senses acting on its own inherent energies, than any abstract metaphysical substances, under the name of *ideas*, introduced to its acquaintance.

"What can we conceive but that a cold and insensible marble tablet, destitute of every original bias, might just as well receive one impression as another? And surely no reason can be assigned, why, on such a principle, one set of notions could be more congenial to the natural feelings, than another; why falsehood should be less acceptable than truth, or gratitude than ingratitude, or vice than virtue; till men should be instructed by experience to give the preference to truth and virtue, as a matter of expediency or cold conventional agreement, and not the effect of sacred immutable obligation, or rather of warm original impulse in the mind.

"It is undoubtedly true, that certain qualities in human actions, related to the virtues, such as gratitude, generosity, humanity, integrity, fidelity, &c. are embraced and cherished by the affections of man, like the very life-blood by the heart; and the sympathetic bond of feeling of the mind of almost every human creature, is as responsive to the impulse.

"Education, surely, can not change the original bias or instinct of the human heart so entirely, that the foundation of what we call virtue, and innocence, and gratitude, and mercy, can be subverted, so that their opposites shall claim unreserved re-

spect in any human society. The human mind is not left so unprovided even by nature, that it must depend upon the learned and inexperienced to teach it the simplest maxims of moral duty. Discipline, undoubtedly, may do much in fostering the good, and checking the evil tendencies; but it cannot make the choleric man placid and torpid in his sensibilities, nor the cold and deliberate, impetuous and quick of apprehension. It cannot convert a natural genius for one art or science into a genius for another. So that it is absurd to speak of education constituting *all* the difference we find in human character. Natural and insuperable obstacles are opposed to an equality of talent, or of natural or moral sensibility in our fellow-creatures."

Essay on Instinct and its Physical and Moral Relations, by THOMAS HANCOCK, M. D.—p. 290.

B.

It is not intended by these remarks to imply that the patronage which has been liberally extended to education by the more enlightened governments of Europe and America, have not *indirectly* contributed to improve the methods of instruction, and to render the useful sciences more easy of access. But in a point of so much importance, as that of facilitating the acquisition of knowledge, by the most agreeable and effectual intercourse between the teacher and

pupil, and by the adoption of such courses as shall be best suited to the varying capacities and tastes of the youthful mind, how little has been the result of any encouragement, directed specifically to this object, either by governments or societies. Every man who has passed in his youth through the discipline of various teachers, will acknowledge that there is an art in teaching; and why should not this art be deemed as worthy of the stimulous of positive encouragement, as any of those that are limited to the extension of physical enjoyments? The only examples, (as far as our knowledge extends,) which can be adduced of a direct reference to this art on the part of governments, occur in some of the German universities, where, in the numerous corps of instructors, is found a professor of PEDAGOGY, whose duty it is to explain, by a course of lectures and exercises, to those of the students who have it in contemplation to pursue the profession of teaching, the best method of conveying instruction, and managing schools. These professorships are of acknowledged importance.

In France, this subject has been considered as having so essential a connexion with the progress of education as to have engaged a considerable number of the most enlightened and philanthropic gentlemen of the capital, to form a society for the express purpose of advancing the art of teaching. Its title is "La Societé pour le perfectionnement des

methodes d'enseigment." * At a general meeting of this society held the 5th of March, 1822, several discourses were made illustrating the objects of the association, and enforcing their importance. The following extracts, it is presumed, will not be deemed inappropriate, on the present occasion.

"The mind of man is an active but limited force; it is by methods that this force operates, that it multiplies, in some sort at will, and varies indefinitely its action. It is a sort of artificial understanding added to that which we enjoy from nature. Method is order; and order, an attribute of wisdom, is at the same time its product and its means. It is the code which reason imposes upon herself.

"Method is, in a word, the most beautiful present, which philosophy has bestowed upon science.

"The secret of the superiority of the moderns over the ancients in the region of the positive sciences, is altogether in the merit of their methods.

"This secret was revealed by the examples of Galileo, and by the immortal lessons of Chancellor Bacon,—lessons which his age, still enveloped in the darkness of the schools, was scarcely able to comprehend.

"If, after so many ages, our own has made such vast conquests in the empire of science, is it not essentially to method that it owes the success on which is founded its legitimate glory?

* For the organization of this society, see Note I.

"Whilst the application of mathematical analysis to the various branches of physics, has revealed the system of laws which preside over the various orders of phenomena, and lent us formulas for expressing them, the art of experimenting has revealed in its turn, orders of phenomena whose existence was not even suspected.

"While an exploration of the various kingdoms of nature is daily adding new tributes to our vast collections, methodical nomenclatures simplify the catalogues of them, and furnish us, in the midst of this inexhaustable variety of details, with the thread of a constant and gradual analogy. Mineralogy submits the formation of it crystals to geometrical formulas. Chemistry, which until lately seemed on the one hand to be confounded with the occult arts, and on the other, to be placed in the rank of simple manipulations, has been suddenly raised to the dignity of science, and has contracted with all the other physical sciences, the most fruitful alliances. It was *method* which presided over this grand creation.

"Thus, (thanks to method) each discovery becomes the germ of new discoveries, and, admirable result! whilst the horizon of human knowledge is extending its domain, it becomes more easy to traverse.

"How has it happened, that, whilst the perfecting of method has produced such precious results in the investigations of science, its advantages have been so slowly felt in the art of instruction, and

especially in the various parts of elementary instruction? It is that the region of science and the sphere of instruction have remained isolated from each other? The former was open to the free and generous inspirations of genius; and the latter has remained very much under the empire of custom and routine.

"Too often, fatal prejudices have excited fears against the meliorations which are necessary to propagate, in the bosom of society the vivifying influence of light; for the progress of light is a very different thing from the progress of science: the former operates, if we may so speak, in all dimensions; it fills space; the second takes place only in one direction; a route frequented only by a particular class. Too often in favouring the one, the other is arrested. Blind private interests and a puerile vanity have increased the obstacles to its advancement. Too often, also, study has been considered only as a means of occupying the time of youth, and enough is supposed to have been done if it furnished materials for exercising indifferently the various professions; too little account has been made of the noble estimation of man as an intelligent and improvable being.

"The understanding, for the uses to which it is destined, possesses the same primitive faculties, whatever may be the extent of their applications. In infancy, in adolescence, and in manhood, it is an active and spontaneous principle, which conceives

and produces, which gradually developes its forces, without changing its nature. If then it would be imprudent to impose upon it, at any period, a burden above its strength, it would be no less a departure from the true object of method, to dispense with the exercise of its native vigour, and to prevent it from making those efforts of which it is capable; and still more unwise would it be, if the course adopted, tended to paralyse that energy, to restrain and to thwart it whilst it was pretending to render it assistance. Such is precisely the effect of bad methods. They enslave the faculties instead of guiding them.

"Study consists not alone in the acquisition of knowledge; it is a true intellectual gymnastic. In yielding us foreign aid, method should also support and cultivate incessantly the vigour and talent which the mind inherently possesses; and undoubtedly for a child, the most needful instruction consists in preparing it to become a man; to enter into the full enjoyment of that reason, which is the noblest attribute of our nature.

"Knowledge may differ according to age and to the particular destination of him to whom it is offered. But each one should possess in himself that which is appropriate to his situation, and consequently he ought to hold it as the conquest of reason, and not as a mere loan from the memory.

"If then knowledge varies in different cases, reason is equally necessary to all. It is the first want of all, whatever may be the sphere which is assigned

it. It is not much to be merely in possession of knowledge:—its utility depends upon the faculty of applying it. This faculty is no other than reason. To exercise, and to form the reason, should therefore be the directing point in all good methods of instruction.

"Such, gentlemen, are the views which have led to the formation of this association, for I have done no more than rapidly and imperfectly to express your own reflections. At no epoch could such an order of research be more opportunely undertaken. If all the arts have now their centre of correspondence in which their various lights converge, and in which those who seek to perfect them, cast, as into a common stock, the fruits of their meditation and experience, ought not this advantage to be claimed for the first of all the arts, that which directs the exercises of the thinking powers? You propose to establish between the sciences and the method of teaching, that alliance which is invoked by the nature of things and which is needful in order to profit by the second of conquests obtained by the former.

"It need not be dissembled, that all procedures do not deserve the name of methods; that all methods are not equally fit to obtain their end; that mediocrity, blinded by prejudice, often usurps the rights of genius, and aspires to regulate what it would be incompetent to execute. Abandoned to so many attempts made at hazard, study would fall into confusion instead of being better prescribed.

You will therefore proceed with just severity in the examination of the ideas that may be submitted to you; and your suffrages will be the more valuable as they will be less lavishly bestowed.

"Already has it been found advantageous to unite in order to compare the various methods employed or proposed; to subject them to the control of experience, to the proof of a benevolent analysis. In this comparison they will enlighten each other, and contribute to mutual perfection.

"The lights which you have thus collected, will be offered to those who may apply them; often they will consult you; they will receive from you advice, prepared by deliberate discussion, and inspired by benevolence and candour.

"Much of this advice has been already fruitful, and you have the happiness of seeing estimable instructors associating their labours with yours, and confirming, by practical results, the views which have merited your approbation.

"It is thus that you fulfil, and will continue to fulfil, the honourable career which is open before you. Your only ambition is to be useful; and it will be satisfied.

"The good which you propose, can, from its own nature be acquired but slowly; it demands a long perseverance; the meliorations due to your efforts will develope themselves only with time, but they will be the more fruitful."

Discourse of Baron de Gerando.

"One of the most important branches of human knowledge is, without contradiction, the science of education. By its aid, the progress of the faculties, physical, intellectual, and moral, of each individual, is not abandoned to hazard; observation, experience, and reason, collect and combine the lessons which nature and human events are momentarily unfolding; by the science of education, family and society take possession of children at their birth, provide for their wants, protect and fortify their bodies, enlighten their minds, hasten and direct the unfoldings of that universal instinct, which speaks to all consciences, teaching them to conform to social necessities, to support their burdens, and to recognize the advantages of social order;—by this science in short, the generation which is now upon the active theatre of the world, discharges towards the rising generation, its debt to that which is passing away. This science which may be denominated sacred, (so essential are the duties whose accomplishment it regulates,) is far from existing among us in the state of advancement in which it ought to be found.

"Upon this point a sort of general and inconsiderate alarm against doctrines and theories, retains even well intentioned minds in the fetters of routine, and in the hazards of an experimental practice which sometimes is attended with good, but which is powerless against encroaching evil. Instruction is in vogue, good elementary works are multiplied,

gymnastic establishments are forming, excellent professors fill the chairs of our colleges; special schools and public courses, insure an honourable prosperity to the higher sciences; but in no part of France are the methods and theories of education leagued into a system; no where are they discussed, investigated and professed; there is no common centre which unites the various essays which are multiplied in all parts of the civilized globe to bring the method of instruction into harmony with the modern condition of society, and which, if they remain isolated, must become weakened by fruitless efforts, or obtain at least a very limited advantage, instead of producing those happy results, which ought to spring from useful hints and discoveries. You have been struck, gentlemen, with these important truths; you have observed, that there is a general tendency in society towards the melioration of public and private instruction; it is your wish at once, to assist and to regulate this generous impulse which several amongst you have contributed to give to the public mind, and which others have hastened to follow; you have felt how important it is that a natural and scientific examination should precede the applications and encouragements of methods which may at first appear the most seducing. You have therefore united into a society for the purpose of searching out the best methods of teaching and of stimulating and encouraging their application.

"Most of the founders of this society belong to another, which it would be unbecoming on this occasion to eulogize, since a great number amongst you are in its ranks. I shall only remark, that the '*Society for Elementary Instruction,*' has restored to France the method of *mutual instruction*, which here took its rise, but which, abandoned and forgotten, has returned amongst us as a child which, having escaped from the paternal roof before its habits were formed, re-appears when least expected, full of vigour, and covered with glory. The method of mutual instruction, one of the happiest discoveries of modern times, will form a grand epoch in the history of civilization. Simple and easy, because it is natural, economical of time and money, it has above all other advantages that of being eminently moral, and of inspiring, without any studied preparation, as without effort, ideas of order, subordination, and justice. The society formed at Paris, for the encouragement of this beneficent method, wished to place itself in a capacity to judge of the efforts which are making in so many places for the improvement of education either by the application of mutual instruction, or by any other means.

"It has wished to keep a single eye to its proper object, the perfection and propagation of primary education; but many of its members have been unwilling to suffer so many honourable trials and experiments to pass fruitless away, they have had the ambition of giving to France an idea of what might be

considered an *Academy of Education:* they have founded this society.

"Permit me, gentlemen, to remind you, that the society of elementary instruction, which has given birth to yours, was itself a colony of the useful 'Society for the encouragement of national industry.' It is thus that ideas of public good, link together, and fortify themselves by reciprocal alliances, and by the spirit of association; instruction and industry are inseparable sisters.

"It is delightful to see them engage in the same route, to obtain the same common end, the well-being of man, and the free developement of his true dignity and wisdom.*

"Your council has been for some time occupied in the project of a *Model School*, destined to bring into trial, and to offer the model of those methods, which the society shall have discovered to be of the greatest importance, and the most desirable application. In order to act with greater order and promptitude, it divided itself into committees of primary instruction, of the French. Latin, and Greek languages, of the living Languages, of Geography and History; of the mathematical, physical, and

* The judicious author of this report, could scarcely have anticipated the admirable illustration which this sentiment has received in the extensive formation of mechanic institutions, in England, Scotland, and the United States, chiefly since the period in which it was presented.

natural Sciences; of Drawing and Music; and of the general organization and *matériel* of schools.

"Many reports have been made, a great number of methods have passed under review, but obstacles have presented themselves to the general execution of the project which renders its postponement unavoidable." *

The reporter next brings into view, a statement of various essays which had been produced to the society, in relation to *improved* methods of teaching in particular departments of knowledge. Among them is the application of the monitorial system to instruction in medicine and anatomy. The report thus concludes:—

"The task which you have undertaken, is, gentlemen, worthy of all your efforts; but how vast soever it may be, there is nothing in it which ought to discourage you. You may do much good; and though you should be able to accomplish but little, neither your time nor labour will be lost. The love of humanity is not an ambitious sentiment; *all* or *nothing*, is not its device. To spare from childhood a few tears, to excite the preparation of a few good

* This in all probability alludes to the obstacles which the government, under the increasing influence of the clergy, has thrown in the way of all the new improvements in education which were spreading with so much effect throughout the kingdom,—obstacles which threaten in France, the extinction of a system, which in many other countries, is diffusing itself with the happiest effects.

books, to call a few more individuals to the condition of religious, moral, and thinking beings; to choose methods of instruction more certain, easy, and rapid; to introduce new subjects of instruction;—these are conquests which are already certain, and which are sufficient to excite our mutual applause in having formed this union. But why not promise ourselves still greater results when so many important modifications in the existing systems of education are preparing and ripening? Why may not this society indulge the hope of uniting in one common centre all that the love of infancy and childhood, and the study of the dispositions and wants of youth can suggest to the most enlightened men, and thus find itself naturally stationed at the head of this salutary movement? The spirit of association, which centuples the amount of individual power, cannot but fructify our efforts; while it avails itself of those attempts at improvement in public and private education which are manifesting themselves in all directions; while it collects and combines them; while it multiplies them, and directs them by a wise distribution of encouragements, of rewards and counsels. The science of education cannot remain stationary while all others are so rapidly advancing.

"Let us take care how we neglect it, for it is through its instrumentality that the blessings of light and knowledge are to be propagated with facility and promptitude among the generations that are to

follow us. The perfection of civilization is the great social duty which God has imposed upon the human species;—the improvement of education is one of the most efficacious means of serving effectually that noble cause." *Report of* M. RENOUARD, *one of the secretaries.*

In such a government as ours, where one of the dearest objects of each and every one of the state legislatures is, (or ought to be,) to contrive the means of extending the blessings of education to every male and female child within the sphere of its influence, the offering of premiums to those who should exhibit proofs of a practical advancement in the arts of instruction under the control of a suitable literary board appointed by the legislature, might be productive of the happiest effects.

Dr. Lindsley, president of Washington College at Nashville, Tennessee, in his excellent inaugural address, delivered January 12th, 1825, has the following remarks:—

"A free government, like ours, cannot be maintained except by an enlightened and virtuous people. It is not enough that there be a few individuals of sufficient information to manage public affairs. To the people our rulers are immediately responsible for the faithful discharge of their official duties. But if the people be incapable of judging correctly of their conduct and measures; what security can they have for their liberties a single hour? Knowledge

is power by whomsoever possessed. If the people would retain in their own hands that power which the constitution gives them, they must acquire that knowledge which is essential to its safe-keeping and rightful exercise. Otherwise they will soon be at the mercy of the unprincipled aspiring demagogue, who, for a time, may court and flatter them—but who will assuredly seize upon the first favourable crisis to bend their necks to his yoke, and compel them to hail him as their lord and sovereign.

"Give the people knowledge therefore, and you give them power. Education must ever be the grand safeguard of our liberties—the palladium of our political institutions—of all our rights and privileges. In every country on the globe, where the mass of the people are best instructed, will be found the most liberty, the most virtue, the most happiness. Look at North Britain, Switzerland, Holland, Sweden, and above all, these United States. And just in proportion to the want of instruction, will be found oppression, poverty, vice, and wretchedness.

"But there is another prevailing heresy upon this subject, which deserves exposure and condemnation. It is, that superior learning is necessary only for a few particular professions and situations—such as we have been contemplating. Now, I affirm, in opposition, it may be to all the learned faculties of all the learned professions, and to all vulgar prejudices, that every individual, who wishes to rise above a mere labourer at task-work, ought to en-

deavour to obtain a liberal education. I use the term *liberal*, in a liberal sense; without necessarily including every branch of literature or science which usually constitute a college course. The farmer, the mechanic, the manufacturer, the merchant, the sailor, if they would be distinguished in their respective callings, must be educated.

"Should it be objected, that well-educated youth will not *labour* for their support; that if they become farmers or manufacturers, they will, at most, merely superintend and direct the labour of others, I answer—1st, That we at this moment, need thousands of such men. Would not every planter who cultivates the soil by slaves, and every farmer who does the same by hired labourers, be the better, the happier, the more useful member, with a good education than without it? May not the same be said of the directors of printing, mercantile, and manufacturing establishments: and, indeed, of every man who aspires to be above the meanest drudgery of manual labour? Here then are thousands in the community, who, or whose children, might be educated without diminishing the number of actual labourers. So that any increase of seminaries, upon any plan, is not likely very soon to effect the common concerns of productive industry, except by bringing to bear upon them the salutary influence of more light and knowledge, and so far greatly to improve and meliorate the character and condition of all classes of citizens.

"But in the second place, were it possible to give, what might be styled a liberal education, of a suitable kind to every child of the republic, so far from proving detrimental to industry and enterprise, it would produce a directly contrary effect. Difference in rank, station, and fortune would still exist. The pulpit, the bar, the healing art, the army, the navy, the legislative hall, the bench of justice, and all posts of honour and emolument, would, of course, be occupied then as now by men of comparatively superior talents, learning, or address, while the remainder would be compelled, according to their abilities or necessities to do what they could for a livelihood. Though all would be learned to a certain extent, yet there would be various gradations of excellence. The competition for honourable distinction would range on a higher scale, and among men of greater intellectual attainments, than is now the case; but in reference to the whole body of the people, the principle and the result would be the same. All would find their level—and every individual his appropriate place and sphere. Even supposing then, what is not likely soon to happen, that all were educated—and educated in the best manner, we need not apprehend that a famine would ensue from lack of industry.

"In the third place, so far as the experiment has been made, we find that the educated poor do in fact become, in the same proportion more industrious, useful, and happy. I appeal to the school at

Hofwyl—to history, and to the actual state of the world—to every fact which can be adduced as bearing upon the argument. Three centuries ago, it was thought dangerous for the common people any where to be taught the art of reading, and a mechanic who could then read his bible, was a greater rarity than would be in our day, a mechanic who could read Homer in his native tongue.

"Man is a moral and intellectual being, and his moral and intellectual faculties ought to be cultivated, independent of the sordid motive or prospect of pecuniary gain, or of a mere livelihood. The grand question among real philanthropists will be, if it be not already, what system of discipline is best calculated to make men virtuous and happy?—Not what will render them rich, and honourable, and powerful? All cannot be rich. The great mass must ever remain in comparatively humble circumstances. But all may be made virtuous and happy, —so far at least as virtue and happiness can be predicated of mortals in this world. The labouring classes of the people do not labour always. They have their seasons of pleasure and mirth—of recreation and amusement, and of what character these usually are, need not be specified. Let the tavern, the grog-shop, the court-house, the gaming-table, and all gatherings upon public and festive occasions proclaim their value and amount. Could not these people be better employed? Are they incapable of any enjoyment superior to the brute sensualist?

Why is it, that when they have a leisure hour, they become in one way or another the tormentors of of themselves and of their families? What should hinder a poor man from enjoying a literary repast just as well as the rich man? Nothing, surely, but the want of that previous training, which would enable him to relish it. Were a literary taste once imbibed, books would be resorted to for entertainment and instruction; and these would prove not only a more innocent, rational, and beneficial source of enjoyment, but vastly cheaper than any of those which administer to the mere animal and vicious appetites and propensities. How different an aspect would human society present, were every farm-house and cottage supplied with books, and every inmate a reader? Intelligence would then beam from every eye; and home—sacred home, would then be the scene of the purest pleasures. Contentment too would smile on every countenance—with pious hope animating every bosom, and virtue guiding the path-way of life's humble pilgrimage, to brighter mansions in the skies! Thus would be realised on earth the poet's golden age, and the Christian's millenial elysium. Whenever science and religion shall have gained universal dominion, then peace and happiness will crown the lot of every mortal.

"Men are exceedingly prone to be blind to their own best interests. Hence the opposition to all benevolent schemes and patriotic enterprises, at

least, during their early and incipient stages; and until experience shall have established their claims to general patronage and support. Hence the illiberal prejudice against learning, and learned men, and literary institutions, still deeply rooted in many parts of the world, and our own country too.

"King Alfred, in an age which we despise as barbarous, understood this matter far better than many of the sapient monarchs and republican statesmen of the nineteenth century. 'We will and command,' says he, in one of his public acts, 'that all freemen of our kingdom, whosoever possessing two hindes of land, shall bring up their sons to learning till they be fifteen years of age at least, so that they may be trained up to know God, to be men of understanding, and to live happily; for, if a man that is born free, and yet unliterate, we esteem him no otherwise than as a beast, a brainless body, and a very sot.' And it is well known, that, in the University of Oxford, which he either founded or restored, ten times as many youth were educated during a part of his illustrious reign, as at the present day. Had the spirit of Alfred animated his successors, many ages of darkness, superstition, and wretchedness, would have been spared to the land of our sires,—and America might have been in advance of her present attainments.

"Several of the most eminent noblemen of Russia and Germany have already sent their sons to Hofwyl, in preference to any and to all the Univer-

sities of Europe. A similar establishment would doubtless find liberal patronage among American gentlemen. A practical acquaintance with agriculture and the useful arts, would be advantageous on their own account, to every man, but considered as a part of moral and healthful discipline, their importance is greatly enhanced. Should some, however, object to mere manual labour of any kind, as too degrading to their lofty descent, and high aspiring, though resorted to chiefly as exercise and recreation, still regular active employment, in sufficient abundance and variety, may be provided even for the most fastidious; and such as they esteem gentlemanly accomplishments, at the same time that they are acknowledged to be valuable. These, at proper seasons, and under the direction of proper authority, might occupy many an hour which would otherwise be worse spent. Neither Greek nor Mathematics, would lose any thing by such interruptions. Let these general hints go for what they are worth. I am no advocate for sudden changes and innovations, nor am I invincibly attached to the beaten track of my fathers.

"Our country needs seminaries purposely to train up and qualify young men for the profession of teaching. Though the idea may be novel to some persons, yet the propriety and importance of such a provision will scarcely be questioned by competent judges. The *Seminarium Philologicum* of the late celebrated Heyne at Goettingen, though a private

institution in the midst of a great university, furnished to the continent of Europe, during a period of nearly half a century, many of its most eminent and successful classical teachers and professors. We have our Theological Seminaries, our Medical and Law Schools, which receive the graduates of our colleges, and fit them for their respective professions. And, whenever the *profession* of teaching shall be duly honoured and appreciated, it is not doubted but that it will receive similar attention, and be favoured with equal advantages.

"At present, the great mass of our teachers are mere adventurers—either young men, who are looking forward to some less laborious and more respectable vocation, and who, of course, have no ambition to excel in the business of teaching, and no motive to exertion but immediate and temporary relief from pecuniary embarrassment—or men who despair of doing better, or who have failed in other pursuits, or who are wandering from place to place, teaching a year here and a year there, and gathering up what they can from the ignorance and credulity of their employers.

"That there are many worthy exceptions to this sweeping sentence, is cheerfully admitted. That we have some well qualified and most deserving instructers, we are proud to acknowledge—and as large a proportion probably in this section of the country, as in the older states. Still the number is comparatively small; and the whole subject de-

mands the most serious attention of the good people of this community. We have no system—no regularly organized schools for classical instruction, where the teachers feel themselves comfortably, honourably, and permanently established, and where the pupils are duly trained and disciplined for the college or university. We have taken the liberty to name the evil; and we appeal to the good sense of the public with confidence for its correction or removal.

"In consequence of the unfortunate state of our schools generally, colleges are compelled to fix the standard of qualification for admission so low as necessarily to remain themselves grammar schools of a rather higher order. Had we schools of a proper character, and in sufficient numbers, then might our colleges become in fact what they assume to be in name. Then might be learned in the former, so much of the classics and mathematics, of history, chronology, antiquities, and other branches, as that a college would be a fit residence for young men, and its liberal pursuits adapted to their previous attainments. Then philosophy and science, and elegant literature, might unfold their richest treasures to minds prepared to receive and relish them. And, until then, we must be content to pursue the humble course which has been marked out.

"But let us not despair of ultimately reaching the very *maximum* of our wishes. Let us commence where we must—with such youth as our country

can furnish. Let us diligently cultivate, improve and polish the materials at hand, in the best manner we can. Let us not seek to make children youth, and youth men, and men lawyers, physicians, clergymen, or politicians too fast. Let us keep our pupils to their proper work—and carry them as far as they can safely and surely go, and no further. Better teach them one thing well than twenty things imperfectly. Their education will then be valuable as far as it extends. Some will leave us, able and willing to teach upon our own plan. Every year, perhaps we may advance a little—demand something more for admission—and that something in better style—send forth more and abler instructers—in return, receive still more accomplished pupils—and thus proceed, year after year, slowly but surely, until we elevate our schools and our colleges to a rank and standing worthy of a free, enlightened, and magnanimous people."

C.

Count De Lasteyrie in a valuable tract published in 1819, entitled "Nouveau Système D'education et d'enseignement, ou l'enseignement mutuel appliqué aux langues, aux sciences, et aux arts,"* has the following remarks in relation to the Chevalier Paulet.

* New System of Education and Instruction, or Mutual Instruction, applied to languages, sciences, and arts.

"The English accuse Bell of not having been the inventor of the system which he established in London, but of having imitated that of the Chevalier Paulet, who had formed in the neighbourhood of Paris, about the year 1785, a flourishing school of 200 pupils. We will show in what the method consisted, which was practised by this friend of humanity.

"His system, as we are informed by a celebrated writer, was based upon four principles: 1st. To present to the pupils various objects of study and labour, and to allow the greatest latitude to their tastes. 2d. To employ them reciprocally in instructing each other, by offering to the disciple the honour of becoming in his turn a master, as the highest reward of his progress. 3d. To confide to them the whole domestic service, in order to unite the double advantage of instruction and economy. 4th. To govern them, in a manner by themselves, by placing each one under the inspection of another more steady and skilful, so as to render them securities for each other. Every thing in this establishment exhibited the appearance of freedom and vivacity. There were no other penalties than a compulsory idleness, and a change of dress. The punishments were the minor idleness (la petite oisiveté) and the major idleness (la grande oisiveté.) To these were given the name of *vice*.

"The first principle of Paulet could not of course receive so great an extension in the two systems

practised in England, the object not being the same. But it is not to be doubted that on the new systems may be taught besides writing, reading, and calculation, many other kinds of knowledge, the first elements of which it is desirable that the people should receive according to their wants, such as drawing, music, natural philosophy, mechanics, and natural history.

"The instruction which, by the second principle of Paulet, is communicated by means of a well-taught scholar, to one who is unlearned, was practised, not only by him, but in a school directed by M. Herbault, in 1747, in Paris, at the Hospital de la Pitié, Faubourg Saint-Victor. Bell did not extend his school beyond the number of 200, and he was then aided by four adult masters. The system which he followed at Madras, is to a certain extent the same as that which the natives of India, and even the Turks employ in their schools. Lancaster has had the great merit of giving instruction to a thousand children with the aid of a single master. Children had been employed in France and Germany to dictate lessons to their comrades, but no one appears to have conceived, prior to the English teacher, the idea of calculating, spelling, and dictating words, in such a manner that instruction may be given simultaneously to a school composed of various classes, and a great number of children. In the method of Bell, books are employed, which renders it inferior to that of Lancaster on the score of economy, and

still more so with respect to the mechanism of instruction. This part of the system is a *Chef-d'œuvre* which must produce a revolution in popular education, and *which will undoubtedly be one day applied to the instruction of the first classes of society*, after having received the meliorations of which it is susceptible. It may be styled a manufactory of knowledge, with this difference, that the agents of a manufactory are always very expensive, whilst in this case, they cost nothing.

"It may also be considered as an application of the division of labour to the intellectual faculties of man, which by such means may be decupled;—an invention, which, though it may at first appear whimsical, is not less grand and useful than many others which dazzle and astonish us." *Lasteyrie, Nouveau Système, &c. p. 23, et seq.*

"The creation of a jury, by which the scholars themselves inflict the penalties for offences, was put into operation in the school of Paulet, as well as in many others in France and Germany, a long time before that excellent institution was employed in those of England." *Ibid p. 29.*

"The institution of the Chevalier Paulet, was as much extolled throughout Europe, as admired by the French. Louis XVI. honoured it not only by his protection, but he granted to its founder the sum of thirty two thousand francs, to support and extend it; thus evincing his beneficent and paternal solicitude for the indigent classes." *Ibid p. 55.*

D.

"The habits of order, decency, industry, and obedience of those who are rightfully placed over us, which are contracted in the new schools, is one of the advantages that cannot be too highly appreciated, and which must in time have a powerful influence upon individual happiness, national prosperity, and social harmony. The mechanism and discipline of these schools, present all the advantages of military discipline without its rigour and other inconveniences. The pupils obey, because obedience is their duty and is acknowledged to be just, and not because they have received the orders of an imperious master. A child in entering one of these schools, however turbulent and disorderly he may have been, obeys by imitation, and without constraint, notwithstanding the adverse propensities which he may have acquired. He soon learns that he must conform to the mass which presses him forward, and allow himself to be impelled like a body placed in the midst of a torrent. The organization is such, that the master may absent himself without any consequent disorder, interruption of the lessons, or suspension of the industry and exercises of the school.

"We see on the contrary, in ordinary schools, that all is chaos and confusion, when the eye of the master is diverted for an instant. Even his presence ar severity are often incapable of keeping the children to their duty; but in the new order of things, the discipline which to us was so heavy a yoke, be-

comes easy and agreeable; the scholars obey with pleasure, and the cheerfulness which appears in their countenances demonstrates the comfort which they enjoy.

"The mechanism of the system fixes their attention, supports them in their studies, developes their intelligence, and disposes them, at a more advanced age to subordination, and to habits of order and useful activity,—results which must lead to the main object of all humane associations." *Lasteyrie, Nouveau Système, p. 56.*

"Your schools thus constituted, present a most interesting aspect. The asperity of early studies is greatly diminished by the facility of the methods which are practised. The severity of authority is softened by the manner in which it is exercised, submission is not commanded, so much as it is obtained, as the consequence of, or, as the suffrages which the pupils receive and grant freely without ever experiencing among themselves a jealous rivalship. Their rapid progress appears to be rather the natural developement than the direction of their intelligence; and the dispositions which are generally observed in all children from their earliest age, and which become by their growth more or less vicious, are neutralised at the moment they begin to manifest themselves, and are replaced by an amiable affability among themselves, an easy docility towards the heads of their institutions, and a more respectful submission to their parents. It is these effects,

generally experienced and attested daily in your correspondence, which renders *mutual instruction* even more valuable under this relation, than under that of accumulated instruction." *Discourse of the* DUKE DE LA VAUGUYON, *President of the Society of Elementary Instruction, Paris*, 1820.

E.

In volume 18th of the Edinburgh Review, is a spirited and ably written article on the origin and respective merits of the Bell and Lancaster systems, and in which the writer expresses his entire conviction of the superiority of the new or monitorial schools over all other methods of educating the poor, and of conducting large seminaries of every description. The reader is referred to the article itself, which is such as not easily to admit of partial extracts. It adverts to the system, as a means "by which the facility of learning is incalculably augmented *to children of every class*, and a vast saving of time secured even to *those whose circumstances may put economy of money out of the question;* while the facility of teaching is so much increased, that within any given time, an indefinite number of instructors can be provided."

In another article of the same work, written in 1811, (vol. xix. p. 58.) on the same subject, in adverting to the progress of the Lancasterian sys-

tem, the writer states:—"What we have now said refers almost exclusively to England,—to which country, indeed, the practical knowledge of the system was, till very lately, confined. In this end of the island, our excellent establishment of parish schools rendered it less necessary—except, perhaps, in the case of large towns, which are almost inevitably deprived of the benefit of that institution. It is little more than two years, we believe, since the first attempt was made to establish a school on Mr. Lancaster's plan in Scotland; and there are already fifteen in operation, at which nearly five thousand children, of all sects and communions, receive the elements of literature. The most extensive establishments are in Glasgow, where there are already three schools, each containing from three hundred to eight hundred children; and one is now building at the Lanark cotton mills, to contain no less than one thousand. In this city, (Edinburgh,) there are three, the largest and most perfect of which is attended by four hundred children; and we have learned, with great pleasure, that the clergymen and heritors of several populous parishes have already agreed to organize the established parochial schools upon this admirable system."

F.

Independently of the power which the monitorial system possesses when properly applied, of selecting boys who are qualified by a competent superiority of knowledge to instruct others who are below them, the method adopted by Lancaster in teaching arithmetic, was admirably adapted to answer the desired purpose. It consists in placing in the hands of monitors, a key containing a written (or printed) statement or enumeration of all the particulars to be considered by the pupil, in performing the exercise assigned him, and directing the monitor first to read this key to his class, causing them to perform on their slates, and to repeat aloud after him the whole process of the calculation, and then to go over the operation in the very same manner, without his direction, while he, by a simple inspection of the key, ascertains whether they commit any error, and rectifies them if they do. This, it is true, *may be*, on the part of the monitor, a process merely mechanical ; but what matters it to a class, whether the instruction they obtain comes from a man or an automaton, provided it is complete in itself, and altogether sufficient to enable every boy to understand clearly the operation he is to perform ? This method has the further advantage, of giving the scholars no instruction but what is perfectly correct ; which is more than can be said of every teacher who attempts to explain, extemporaneously, sub-

jects with which he is not *thoroughly conversant.* An approximation to this valuable method may be found in the formulas given in all the best grammars now published, and in the keys of many of the arithmetics and other books of mathematics, designed for schools. The Edinburgh Reviewers in adverting to this invention, have the following remarks :— "He (Lancaster) has laid down a method, whereby reading alone is rendered sufficient to make any one teach—he says, arithmetic—we add, *every thing;* for we see no one science which may not be taught in the same way. It is manifest that any rule in Algebra may be communicated by the same process, —from the simplest to the most intricate and refined,—from the addition of two quantities, to the methods of infinite series and fluents. Every part of Geometrical science may be taught by similar means, —from the first proposition in Euclid, to the sublime theories of Newton and Laplace. It only requires that a form of notation, borrowed from the Algebraic calculus, should be first agreed upon. In like manner, whatever branches of natural philosophy admit of a symbolical notation, as the whole of the mixed mathematics, and in general, the application of the sciences of numbers and quantity to experiments, are all capable of being communicated by a person ignorant of them, but able to read, to as many others as can hear the sound of his voice at once. By a few simple additions to this machinery, the method may be made to embrace even

other branches of knowledge: and, in short, we do not hesitate to assert that it is applicable, or may soon be applied, to the whole circle of human knowledge." Vol. 18, p. 74.

G.

"Passing over the systems of rewards and punishments, which Mr. Lancaster has devised, as it appears to us with a thorough knowledge of the subject—the nature of children—derived as much from long experience as from just and even philosophical reasoning—we shall only further notice the system of discipline which he superadded to his other grand improvements. Where a school of 100 or 150 boys is placed under the tuition of four or five masters, there is no great danger of disorder, even on the old plan of instruction, where only one boy in twenty or thirty is employed at a time—still less in the new system, where, instead of so many yawning or whispering little animals, we see nothing but attention and animation, and hear only the buz of industry. But where a single master was to be set over the same number of boys,—and still more when the number was to be increased to 800 or 1000, a discipline behoved to be introduced which should enable his authority to reach all over the body, and supply the want of actual inspection. A systematic arrangement of labour was likewise necessary, where

classes were obliged to shift about from place to place, in order to use the same printed lessons,—and change from task to task, in order to make use of the same materials. Into the details of these matters, we cannot, of course, now enter; but it may be enough to state, in general, that the object is attained by applying to a school the organization of a regiment, and its evolutions, under the word of command. Nor shall we want a witness to vouch for its perfect success, in securing the order and regularity of the operations, if the reader should happen to have seen any one of the various seminaries now established on Mr. Lancaster's principles, and for the most part under his superintendence; or that of the many school-masters whom he has already educated." *Ed. Review, vol.* 18, *p.* 75.

A success, probably, as unexpected and as interesting in its results as that at Madras, occurred at Friburg, in Switzerland, in a school for the children of the town, conducted by Pere Girard, a truly enlightened and benevolent member of a Convent in that place. This school, under its learned and intelligent guide, became celebrated throughout Switzerland for its happy influence upon the moral character of the town, and the facilities which it afforded to instruction, and an object of attraction to visiters of every rank.

In a discourse pronounced by its founder at the

distribution of the prizes in 1818, he thus states the benefits which the monitorial system afforded him.

"I had attained to the regular classification of the pupils, and the progression of their studies, which in increasing the general order, rendered our school, at once common and special;—common in its first elements, special in its ulterior developements. But unfortunately, some time after, it became necessary to renounce the numerous divisions which had been introduced. There existed ten, and we were obliged to reduce them to four; because, the pupils increasing from day to day, it was no longer possible for the teacher to occupy the different portions of his class with different objects. The children were too lively, and especially too much crowded to pass conveniently under the vigilant eye of the master. There were then but four degrees, as there were only that number of rooms. It is true, each one was divided into two sections, but these sections marked only the time which the pupils passed in the same class. Those who were there for the second year formed the second section: the instruction was the same for both.

"It would be tedious, gentlemen, to acquaint you with all the inconveniences of this measure, forced upon us by imperious necessity. I will state but one, and that is that a child of the first class which knew not all its spelling-book on entering the school, was obliged to begin with the alphabet class, and to be detained almost a year before it could

advance many steps. How greatly did we deplore such an inconvenience, for which we found no remedy.

"At length 1816 came, and we were made acquainted with *mutual instruction*. Happy invention! which enabled us to return to our first ideas, and to give to each one of our pupils the degree of instruction which he actually needed. We have now twenty-seven divisions, in due succession, the fifteenth being the highest which those children, which are not much favoured by nature and fortune, generally attain. Some can scarcely arrive at it, while others pass easily beyond,—and thus the institution is adapted to the capacities of all.

"Honour therefore to monitorial instruction! It has rendered us signal service, and we are thankful for it. This system, simple, innocent, and beneficent as it is, has also its enemies; but it must indeed be a good thing in the world which has them not. The most awkward and ridiculous accusation is that which reproaches it with rendering the pupils insubordinate, while it rests, in a special manner upon the most complete subordination, and while it teaches a respect for the organ of the law, even in the person of the weakest child. No one can have any idea of this mode of instruction, who would thus represent it. For ourselves, who judge of it, after an experience of nearly three years, we render it our thanks for having placed in our hands the means of being more useful to our pupils, and of perfecting

more and more a work which is the happiness of our life."

In a previous address to the public, the same benevolent preceptor, in reference to this system, observed :—

"We adopted it last year with eagerness, because we felt the want of it. This year we retain it on account of the service it renders us. It belongs only to this system, to proportion instruction to every capacity, and to spread throughout a school, life, animation, and joy. If it hastens the progress of the children, it has a moral bearing, which is still more delightful and touching, and every instructer, who knows how to raise his thoughts to the sublime of education, cannot hesitate with respect to a choice.

"This is not the place to attempt the full developement of an important theory ; I will touch only upon a single point, that of monitors, charged with instructing and directing their comrades, under the eyes of the master. The monitor chosen among the best pupils, is a model placed at the head of each division ; to which he becomes the object of a noble emulation, while on his side the young preceptor learns to bring into exercise all the talent with which heaven has favoured him, and the little science which he has acquired. He thus prepares himself to live hereafter for others ; he makes at this tender age an apprenticeship to christianity by putting into action the most beautiful of its precepts.

Besides, in performing the duties of his office, he shews us what he is out of school with respect to his younger brothers, or companions whom he surpasses in strength, genius, and address; he shews what he will be when once it may be his duty to command. We may then watch over him in this relation, direct, encourage, or reprove him; which cannot be done upon the ordinary system in which the master performs every thing alone, and in which the scholars stand only in the double relation of inferiors to the master, and of equals to their comrades, and never in that of superiors. Mutual instruction presents the child to education under every point of view. Let us, gentlemen, thence infer the advantages which may be derived from it, when we learn how to take hold of it, in its genuine spirit." *Discours prononcé par le Préfet de l'ecole Française de la ville de Friburg, le 3me Septembre*, 1817.

H.

The history of the monitorial system, furnishes a strong example, among many others, of the force of prejudice, derived from the habit of attaching high importance to usages with which we have long been familiar, and of the jealousy which new schemes of improvement may easily excite when opposed to the interests of individuals, and especially to that of a profession which exercises no inconsiderable au-

thority over the principles and opinions of early life. In no country has this hostility evinced itself with so much determined opposition as in France, where the business of general instruction, both in the higher and lower seminaries, has fallen very much into the hands of a certain order of men who are styled "Frères de la doctrine chretienne," and who seem to think that they have a prescriptive right to the offices and emoluments of education. The management of the schools has thus become associated with clerical influence; and unfortunately for the progress of light and knowledge in that country, this influence is itself in opposition to the universal extension of the benefits of instruction; for it is well known to those who are invested with these privileges, that so great is the affinity between genuine knowledge and rational liberty, that to enlighten the great mass of the people will be to inspire them with a disrelish for every species of oppression, and a corresponding desire to emancipate themselves from all superstitions, political and religious. There are few nations in Europe in which the best schemes for the universal extension of education, have not had to struggle with the opinion that to instruct the working classes would be to render them dissatisfied with the relative condition which they hold in society, and thus disturb the social order. If more just and philanthropic views are now entertained, (as they unquestionably are throughout this country, and very generally in Great Britain,) it is still

no cause of surprise, that a mode of teaching, which levels to so great an extent the means of acquiring knowledge, should meet with serious obstacles, even in the most enlightened countries. Experience, however, is the proper test. Education is strictly an experimental science, and to this authority the friends of monitorial schools have no objection to appeal. I shall therefore in this note adduce such evidences of success in the application of the monitorial system to the higher branches, as are supplied by materials in my possession.

An article on Education in the first number of the Westminster Review, (Jan. 1824,) contains so much information and reasoning appropriate to our subject, I shall make no apology for extracting largely from it, and for introducing such supplementary matter as I am able to furnish.

"In our day, an improvement has been made in the art of teaching, of more importance to the advancement of knowledge than any discovery that has been made since the invention of the alphabet itself. This new system of education has spread with unexampled rapidity; there is scarcely an inhabited spot in our country to which it has not already penetrated; it will become universal: but neither its principles nor its application appear to be perfectly understood by many who sincerely rejoice in the effects which they see it daily produce, and who would willingly aid in extending it. No subject can be more important. We shall point out

what the principles of this system really are, and to what extent it seems practicable to apply them.

"1. The first and essential principle of the new system of education is, that children teach each other. This, like many other important discoveries, is but the new application of an old truth; for no maxim is more ancient than that, what a person understands he can communicate, and that the best way to learn is to teach.

"2. In this system, in order that the scholars may teach each other, the school is divided into classes. These classes consist of all the scholars who are nearly of the same age, and who have made nearly an equal progress. The consequence of this arrangement is, that the rank of every boy in his class and in his school, is determined by his attainments. Each class is further paired off into tutors and pupils. Thus in a class of 24 boys, the twelve who are the best informed and the most worthy of trust, are made tutors to the twelve worst, for whos knowledge of their lessons and behaviour in school hours they are responsible. The effect of this arrangement is often highly important; occasionally, however, it is dispensed with in the higher and more perfect classes.

"3. But what is never dispensed with is, the appointment to each class of a certain number of monitors. This is one of the chief characteristics and advantages of the system. The duty of the monitor is to attend exclusively to the business of his

class; to see that every boy is attending to his duty; to instruct the tutors in learning their lessons, and assist them in teaching their pupils, and to hear the class say its lesson the moment it is prepared. Every instant the monitor sees how every boy in his class is employed, and hears every word that is uttered. The monitor, raised from the class he teaches, must have mastered what he is now intrusted to teach; he must be a well informed boy, and a boy of good conduct; his office is a proof of both; it is earned by merit; it is a place of trust, and the confidence reposed in him makes him worthy of it.

"4. The lessons taught are plain: each contains but a few ideas expressed in the clearest language nothing is anticipated: the knowledge acquired in the preceding lesson prepares for that which succeeds, and that again for the next.

"5. These lessons are short: they never require more than ten minutes, or at most a quarter of an hour to learn them; as soon as they are prepared they are said at once, without the delay of a moment: thus, three, six, or even ten lessons, are sometimes repeated in an hour; and they continue to be repeated until it is certain that the scholar understands them perfectly. Special care is taken that not a single word is passed over which every boy in the class does not fully comprehend; that no new lesson is begun until the old is completely mastered. There is nothing with which so much pains is taken as to secure this capital object; and

the superlative excellence of the system is, that whatever progress appears to be made is real, and that the instruction, to whatever extent it goes, is perfect.

"The manner in which the lessons are said is similar to that in which they are learned. Each boy takes precedence of him whose error he is able to correct; hence as a high place in the class can be obtained only by great attention, so it can be maintained only by uniform vigilance. Each lesson as soon as said, is marked in the monitor's book; and the sum of these daily lessons and of the other daily tasks, together with the individual proficiency of each scholar, are entered in a register book. Such are the principles which constitute this system, it may be useful to advert a moment to some of its more important effects.

"In the first place, it is evident that on this system children are better taught than on the old, because from the sympathy they take in each other, they learn every thing communicable by one to the other more easily and perfectly. Whatever a child has been taught, he will communicate to his comp anions better than a master; because his manner of teaching, and the words he employs, will be suited to the capacity of his pupil; he knows where this difficulty lies, and how to remove it. By this system the attention is fixed; there is no idleness; the mind must be engaged in the business in hand; a lesson is to be said every ten minutes; the moni-

tor's eye is on every child; the pupil's task is easy, the time allowed for learning it is short. By this single arrangement the great difficulty in the art of education is overcome: a certain method is discovered of fixing the attention, of abstracting the mind, and binding it vigorously and unremittingly to the accomplishment of the particular object in which it is engaged; no matter for how short a period this is done; a few minutes of real continuous, uninterrupted application, if the occasion for the exertion frequently recur, will lead to an unusual developement of the most valuable faculty of the human mind—that which even in the most vigorous understandings is always unfolded more slowly, and cultivated less perfectly than any other.—The knowledge which is thus communicated is clear and precise, and is fixed indelibly in the mind by repetition. Should a boy not retain the previous lessons he has learned, it will appear from his answers; and he must sink to the bottom of his class; and if he remain there long he will be degraded, and he knows it, to an inferior class. Of the successful operation of this principle the testimony is uniform, and the evidence irresistible.

"6. By this system the greatest possible assistance is given to the slow, and the greatest advantage to the quick. The slow are stimulated and impelled; the quick are never for a moment retarded. As soon as they get to the top of their class, remain there steadily, and thus show that they

perfectly understand its business, they are promoted to a higher class. Here then is a free course for genius. The active and the indolent, the stumbling and the sure-footed, though they may be yoked together, are not forced to keep pace with each other; if stupidity be dragged along by the vigour of genius, it is a clear advantage gained: genius cannot be chained down by the weight of stupidity. It has been said by an excellent judge,—To mark precisely the moment when the pupil understands what is said, the moment when he is master of the necessary ideas, and consequently the moment when repetition should cease, is, perhaps, the most difficult thing in the art of teaching. By this arrangement of classes, this period is pointed out with perfect exactness and invariable certainty.

"With an exception or two hereafter to be mentioned, this admirable plan of education has hitherto been restricted to the mere elements of instruction; namely, to Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic. The success with which it has taught these elementary arts, by far the most difficult to be communicated in the whole circle of the science of education, is perfect; and the labour, money, and time saved by it, is truly wonderful. That it is capable of being applied with equal advantage to the higher branches of education; that with some modifications it might be made the instrument of teaching language, arts, and sciences, in all the variety and extent in which these subjects ever are, or can be

communicated by one mind to another;—is the constantly repeated opinion of the inventor of the system, and is also the opinion of every intelligent man who has attended to the subject, as far as we know, without a single exception."

The writer, after having detailed the principles of a school projected by the celebrated Jeremy Bentham, under the appellation of the CHRESTOMATHIA SCHOOL, for the extension of the new system of instruction to the higher branches of learning, proceeds thus :—

"Such is the course of instruction proposed to be pursued in the new school, and without doubt, the extent and variety of the subjects must appear sufficiently appalling to those who have been accustomed only to the old method of teaching; but that they are all capable of being taught on the principle of the new system, will appear evident from the following considerations :—There is nothing in the nature of these subjects which renders the principles of the new system inapplicable to them, but the contrary. The knowledge we possess of them, as far as it extends, is real and precise; and such knowledge it is always easy to communicate. The subjects themselves are naturally interesting to the human mind. Most of the objects treated of, especially in the early stages, are not only sensible objects, but objects the most familiar to the senses: many of the phenomena to be explained, are the most common occurrences

in nature, are the first to awaken the curiosity of the youthful mind, and respecting which, it is always easy to excite great interest.—Most of these subjects are capable of that simple and natural arrangement which is of such essential importance to the communication of knowledge. In all of them it is easy to begin with simple principles; to advance step by step, to those that are more complicated; to prevent the anticipation of any idea; in fact, to make every lesson perfect in itself, or, at least in conjunction with the instruction that has preceded, and a preparation for the lesson which is to follow. With natural philosophy, in all its extent, with mechanics, with chemistry, with their associated branches, and with mathematics, this is eminently the case, and it is really so with language itself.

"There is not one of these subjects, all the parts of which might not be subdivided and arranged in lessons as short as can be desired, recognizing, to the fullest extent, the principle never to be lost sight of in education, that the human mind can attend to but one idea at a time. All these facts are capable of being learned in a class; all are capable of being said in a class: many of the objects to which they relate, are admirably calculated for instruction in a class, because they are capable of being exhibited in specimens or illustrated by drawings or diagrams. The short lessons containing an account of these objects, and of the facts relating to

them, may be represented over and over again until they are learned perfectly; and it must at all times be easy to ascertain whether or not any individual in the class understand these thoroughly. Hence then it is clear, that there is not a single principle of this admirable system which is not as applicable to instruction in the highest branches of learning, as experience has proved it to be favourable to the acquisition of its elementary arts.

"If before the experiment had been made, it might have been reasonable to doubt of the correctness of this statement, at least in its full extent, and if any of the branches included in the above table had been pointed out as affording a probable exception, it would certainly have been the study of language. It is singular, that in the only attempt hitherto made to communicate any of the higher branches of learning on the principles of the new system, that very branch should have been selected for the trial respecting which there would have been *a priori* the most reasonable ground to doubt whether the experiment would succeed. The experiment has been made, and with complete success. The event is triumphant; it is declared to be so by authority that must be deemed decisive."

The writer cites, as an evidence of this success, the examples of the Charter-House School in London, and of the High School in Edinburgh, in both of which the monitorial system has been thoroughly tried in its application to the study of Latin and Greek. Dr. Bell observes, (Elements of Tuition,

part III. p. 249,) "I have this day attended the annual examination of the Charter House School, in the presence of Dr. Fisher, *master* of the Charter House, &c. &c., by the chaplains of his Grace the Archbishop of Canterbury; and can state that the three upper forms, taught, as well as the rest of the school, by monitors, were examined in the higher Greek and Roman classics; and that every member of these classes proved himself fully master of every book which he had read. The examination altogether, was in the highest degree satisfactory to the examiners, and most gratifying to my feelings. The school has grown in number thirty scholars since last year, and is in a most flourishing state."

"It is still made a question," (observes Dr. Bell, page 247) whether or not it (the new system) is applicable to schools of a higher description, and especially to Grammar Schools. Indeed it is frequently alleged, that this mode of tuition will not apply to classical schools; just as I was often told, on my arrival from India, that it would do very well under the Government of Madras, in the torrid zone, and with the children of the eastern world; but not in this free country, in a temperate climate, and with the children of the charity schools of England.

"The latter objection is completely done away by facts: and the fleet career of the Madras system, in the first stage of its course, has outstript even my sanguine expectation, who have uniformly looked

forward to its silent and gradual progress, and ultimate diffusion over the world."

"The former objection, as to grammar schools, I am persuaded, need only be submitted to the same test of repeated and continued experience to be also done away." *

* The following letters, addressed to Dr. Bell, by the official examiners of the Charter-House school, are given by him in his pamphlet entitled, "The Wrongs of Children," pages 86—87. Coming from such authority they must be conclusive with respect to the effects which are so clearly stated.

"DEAR SIR,—I have great pleasure in stating to you, agreeably to your request, the impression made on my mind by the examinations of the Charter-House School; and in so doing, I shall say no more than I have often said in different companies, where the subject has happened to be started.

"The acquaintance which the boys manifest with the several subjects of their examination, is highly satisfactory. Whether it be with respect to the grammatical construction, or the matter, or the metre, (if in a poetical author,) or the several points of history, mythology, geography, &c. incidently connected with the book they have in hand, I have found them very rarely at a loss, and almost always well and fully instructed.

"You will understand me to speak especially of the first form, the examination of which is our special business; but I would add, that information, in its due measure and degree, appears to be possessed by the boys in the inferior forms.

"One circumstance, very important, as I apprehend, is, that the information above described, is by no means confined to one or two distinguished individuals, but is generally dispersed throughout the form. I do not mean to say that there is no disparity in the attainments of the different individuals, or that I have not been more gratified by the proficiency of some boys than of others. But I mean that each and all, as far as I have been able to judge, have, with very few if any exceptions, shewn themselves qualified

But the example of the High School of Edinburgh under the Rectorship of Mr. (now professor)

to occupy the post, in which each have been placed with credit to himself, and without leading to reflections prejudicial to the uniform good appearance of the whole. Another very satisfactory circumstance is, the manner in which the boys conduct the examination of each other. I have frequently seen young men in the university examined in college, at the end of each term, and in schools for their degree; but I doubt whether I have ever seen the subject of the examination better brought forward, so as to shew the full possession of it both by the examiner and the examined, than I have repeatedly witnessed in the Charter-House boys.

"It might be suspected, possibly, that this was prepared beforehand: and so it certainly is thus far, that the boys are trained with the utmost diligence, in a perfect knowledge of the author—say for instance, one of gospels, or a Greek play, or a book of Herodotus, in which they are to be examined. But they are not prepared by any regular set of questions, nor is there any collusion between the several parties. Indeed, to avoid the possibility of this, if, indeed, the character of Mr. Russell would allow a suspicion of such a possibility, care is continually taken by the authorised examiners, (Mr. D'Oyly, I mean and myself,) occasionally to break in on the series of questions, and either now and then to propose a new question, or to carry on the examination by a succession of interrogatories of our own. I mention this by the way for the purpose of obviating any unfair suspicion. The point which I intend here to fix your attention on, is the masterly manner in which the boys themselves conduct the examination of their respective forms.

"I have mentioned what strike me as two principal features in the boys of the Charter-House. They may be, and probably are, the result of the system of education which Mr. Russell has introduced into his school and assiduously maintains. At the same time, you must allow me to express a caution against your understanding me to institute any comparison between the state of his

Pillans, affords the most unequivocal evidence of the benefits to be derived from the application of

school and any other. To say the truth, of the actual state of other schools, I know little, and I should not be warranted therefore in instituting a comparison, much less in assigning a superiority to his. But that his school is in a high degree of perfection, I am persuaded on the testimony of my own observation, the six years that I have visited it. And I doubt not I shall find no abatement of evidence in its favour on repeating my visit, next week, for the seventh time. Indeed, I have given the best proof of my persuasion on this subject not merely by frequently affirming it in a variety of companies, but by having sent my own boys thither, to enjoy the benefit of instruction under a master, for whom the proficiency of his scholars induced me to entertain the highest opinion.

"Should it occur to you that there are any particular points of inquiries, not at present noticed, on which I may be able to give you satisfaction, I hope you will not scruple to repeat your application. And, if the foregoing statement can be in any way serviceable to you, I beg you to make such use of it as you may judge expedient.

"I remain, &c.

RICHARD MANT."

"My Dear Sir,—In answer to your inquiry as to my opinion respecting the success with which the Madras System has been applied to classical education, at the Charter-House school, I am happy to inform you that, having now for several years officially attended an annual examination there, I have been uniformly struck with the extraordinary proficiency and exertions of the scholars. On these occasions, our attention has been principally directed to the higher forms of the school in which the scholars have been prepared to be examined in particular books; and we have observed with peculiar satisfaction, the extent and accuracy of the knowledge, which they have displayed. We have found them prepared, not only to translate the books, but to answer questions

the new system to the acquisition of language. In that school the number of scholars at the time alluded to, was nearly 900: the whole being divided into five classes. four of which are under as many separate masters, and the higher under the immediate charge of the Rector. This school was founded exclusively for instruction in the Latin language, and to this the attention of the masters is chiefly confined. Dr. Alex. Adam who preceded Mr. Pillans, introduced the study of Greek and Ancient Geography, and the practice is continued by his successors. When Mr. Pillans commenced his Rectorship, his class consisted of 144 which (he observes) might be considered an average one, for that period.

of all descriptions arising out of them; on some of the subjects to repeat, construe, and explain the text entirely from memory; and this to an extent and with a uniformity of excellence through the whole class, which can only have resulted from great exertion, and attention in all the individuals composing it.

"We have also been enabled to observe the accurate manner in which the boys of the lower forms are grounded in the knowledge of grammar, and the elements of language. And in all the forms we have been struck as well with the quickness and precision with which the answers are given, as with the spirit of emulation which prevails among the scholars, and gives peculiar excitement to their faculties in the acquisition of knowledge.

"Thus the distinguished excellence of the Madras System is exhibited here in effects precisely similar to those which are derived from it in so extraordinary a degree, in schools for the lower orders of the community.

"I remain,

Yours, &c.

GEORGE D'OYLY."

His last class, the largest he ever had, (that of 1819—20) contained 288.

The Monitorial System was introduced by this gentleman from a conviction of its power, and no other proof of its efficacy need be asked than the extraordinary success which attended his Rectorship, during a period of ten years, and until his removal to the university.

"On entering on my office (says Mr. P.) though the class was not so numerous as at present by one hundred, yet I felt very sensibly the inconvenience of prescribing business for a set of pupils, between the best and worst of whom, the difference was so great, that the lessons which were too easy for the one, were too difficult for the other. I found also that when such a number of boys are together in a class, the spirit of emulation is apt to languish, both because it is utterly impossible to examine each boy daily, and because it signified little to a boy whether he stood one hundred and thirty or one hundred and forty from the head of the general class."

"This experience, which must be that of every teacher who undertakes to manage a large class without assistance, led to the systematic adoption of monitors and small divisions."

"The monitors are chosen, and the whole class arranged into divisions, in the following judicious manner:—The first fortnight of the teaching year, which begins the first of October, is employed in such examinations and exercises in the general class

as give an opportunity for talent and acquirement to display themselves, and mount towards the top of the class. When the cleverest boys have risen to the head, the highest 25, (supposing the class to consist of 250) are taken as monitors, and one more to act as general monitor, and the remainder are divided among them at the rate of 9 to each, in such a manner that the highest boy, or *dux*, has the 27th and 8 succeeding boys; the 2d *dux*, the 36th and 8th below, and so on to the 25th from the top, who has the 8 lowest in the class of his division. Sometimes this is varied by giving the head boy the lowest division. and thus reversing the order of appointment. The monitors are in this way brought into contact with every part of their less advanced school-fellows This not only makes the boys better acquainted with one another, but it gives the rector an additional means of judging of the monitors' qualifications, by comparing the order and progress of the same divisions under different monitors. At the close of the year (observes the rector,) I have not unfrequently allotted a prize book to the monitor who should be adjudged by the greatest number of his school-fellows' votes, to have discharged his duties throughout the year with the greatest temper and ability; nor have I ever found the judgments of the majority to differ from my own. The monitors remain attached to the divisions to which they are appointed for one fortnight. at the end of which they give up a general and neatly digested account

in writing of the behaviour and progress of their pupils, recording those who have risen to higher divisions, or fallen into lower, during their incumbency. The reading aloud of the most remarkable of these results, is a powerful stimulus to exertion and good conduct. In the new appointment, the 25 are taken as before, but do not consist entirely of the same boys, or in the same order, for the daily examination and skirmishing of question and answer, has probably made considerable alterations; those below the twenty-five having all along strained every nerve to raise themselves within the envied number, and thus to have the honour, (for it is esteemed a high one,) of being appointed monitors on the approaching occasion.

A proper degree of emulation is thus constantly maintained; for every boy is fired with the ambition of rising at least to the head of his own division. Supposing him to have gained this point, he knows it to be a rule, that if he retires *dux* or head of his division two days successively, on the third morning he is called first in the division to construe the lesson, and if he does it well, he receives a line from the monitor of his own division, which admits him to sit the whole of that day in the next higher, and if he succeeds in pulling down any of that division, the lowest boy of that division at the end of the day goes next morning to supply his place. On the other hand, if a boy continues two days at the bottom of a division, and fails in the lesson on the third, the high-

est boy of the next division has a right to challenge him by entering into the higher. A constant stimulus is thus applied, urging a boy upwards; and instances are frequent, particularlarly at the beginning of the year, of boys mounting through all the divisions. till reaching within twenty-five from the head, they become monitors themselves. Few minds are able to resist the operation of such stimuli: in some ardent tempers it is apt to become too strong; and even in the lowest and least advanced part of the class, the torpor of the dullest boys is excited to a surprising degree. It is not uncommon to see a boy in the twenty-second or twenty-third division crying for the loss of a place or two. This spirit is still further maintained by the certainty which every boy feels, that he will have to say a portion of the lesson each day, a result unattainable in such a number of boys without the monitorial system. This certainty inspires the delinquent boy with the confidence of having his exertions rewarded, and the idler with the fear of detection and exposure.

The great opportunity which the system of monitorial divisions gives the master of becoming acquainted with the temper, habits, and talents of every boy, even of so great a number, is worthy of remark. The rector is confident that he can learn more of each boy's character out of 250, than he could have done, upon the former plan of education, with a class of 100. While the lessons are going on in divisions, his principal employment is to hear ap-

peals, (that is, when a monitor declines to decide a point, and it is referred to him) and to go about from division to division, watching the progress and behaviour both of boys and monitors. A thousand circumstances occur in the divisions, such as boys becoming too keen and loud in their discussions, monitors betraying a little impatience, &c., which afford endless opportunities for the master to attach himself to a particular division, and by a little good humoured rallying, doing more to teach them the command of their temper, mutual forbearance, gentleman-like conduct, and other virtues, than could be effected by formal lectures, or severe punishments. The good effects of the system upon the monitors, are very apparent. Instead of sitting restless and yawning, after the first translations of the lesson, as the higher boys on the common system generally do, while the same thing is said over and over in the lower parts of the class, he is now placed in a responsible situation of power and trust, where he not only has occasion to show himself thoroughly master of the lesson, but is called upon to exercise temper, judgment, firmness without harshness, and a variety of other virtues, which will be of the utmost importance to him in future life.

"The discussions also that take place here among the pupils, on the precise import of words, the propriety of translation, and the more elementary questions of the gender and flexions of nouns, conjuga-

tions of verbs, or the quantity of syllables, are of a nature to sharpen their faculties, and give them the ready use and habit of applying them, much more than in the common mode of conducting business in a large general class. In the latter, the *ipse dixit* of the master closes all discussion and doubt, and the boy is employed, not in questioning, but in receiving and treasuring in his memory what he hears. But he does not think himself bound to receive what a boy, in most respects his equal, may affirm, if it should not coincide with his own ideas. Lest, however, this discussion should be too frequent or prolonged, the monitor has power to stop it by saying, 'Go on with the lesson;' and if a boy still thinks himself aggrieved, he has liberty to make his appeal to the master. The same advantages have been found to accrue from the monitor's having the correction of the *versions*, or written exercises of their divisions. These exercises generally consist of translations, either from Latin into English, or English into Latin.

"The passage is one with which the monitors are, or are made to be, familiar. General directions are given by the master as to the principles of correction. The monitors take them home, and return them the next day, with their remarks and corrections, and a summary of their errors. When the exercises are returned to their owners in divisions, a few minutes are allowed for the boys to look at the marks, and either to admit the justice of them, or to ask an ex-

planation from the monitor; and this produces a great circulation of knowledge, both as to the true meaning of the passage, and the spelling and grammatical propriety of their own language. Sometimes, when time will allow, the monitors who are next each other in the general class, are ordered to exchange the versions they have had, that they may detect each other's errors of omission or commission: and though in this way errors may escape detection, and others may be marked which are not materially wrong, the general result, in promoting free discussion and researches into the reasons of things, is much more beneficial than if the master were to correct the whole himself. In that case, the boy would scarcely take the trouble to look at the corrections at all. When this inquiry has ended, each boy is ordered to have his corrected exercise under his book, to show to the master as he goes round among the divisions. In making this tour, he settles places for the exercises by inspection and information from the monitor; and in this summary way it is not difficult to detect bad writing and ill done exercises, and condemn the culprit to loss of place and an additional exercise. This method would not answer with exercises of a higher description, such as Latin and English verses, themes, analyses of Livy, &c., which the rector therefore examines and corrects himself.

"In this account of the benefits of monitorial divisions, it is by no means intended to undervalue the

importance of general prelection and instruction. They react on each other so powerfully, that each makes the other more efficient than they could be singly.

"In the general class, therefore, when all are assembled in compact order and in perfect silence, that information is conveyed which is afterwards to be distributed and more deeply impressed in divisions. The mistakes committed there are rectified, the monitors themselves are sifted and examined in every variety of way, and the tone and direction is given them as to their mode of conducting the divisions. The time of the school is nearly equally divided between *general* and *monitorial* instruction; and the very act of moving into divisions and back once or twice a day, has a considerable effect in amusing the mind and relieving the body, and has in fact banished almost entirely, the proverbial *ennui* and listlessness of school.

"It is another, and not the least glorious triumph of this system of teaching, in a country where the lash has been so long established as the legitimate instrument of instruction, that it has been gradually diminishing the use of the rod, and that for the last two years it has banished it entirely; and I now, (observes the rector) feel quite confident, that I shall never more have recourse to this clumsy and ineffectual mode of excitement and punishment. The substitutes are simple, and far more efficacious than a flogging, which makes the sufferer the enemy of

his master, and, if he bears it well, the hero of his school-fellows. They are the following:—As in the general class the most profound silence is indispensable, that one voice may reach the ears of all, a general monitor is appointed, whose duty it is to exercise a strict vigilance in detecting and calling out the names of those boys who are whispering to one another, or trifling in any way. On the boy's name being called, if he pleads guilty, he sits still, and his name is inserted in the register of pœnas. If he pleads not guilty, he stands up in his place, and an inquiry is instituted by the master into the case. If the result should be that he has been speaking, the nature of the offence is aggravated. If his general character is good, the master nods to him to sit down, taking it for granted that he would not have stood up without the consciousness of innocence. The boys whose names are registered, are read out before the dismissal of the school, and condemned to write out at home, and show up next morning, the lesson which they did not attend to in school. The same punishment is awarded to those who have been too late, or noisy and troublesome in divisions, or fail in construing the lessons of the preceding day. All these *pœnas*, or impositions, are demanded by the general monitor next morning, and looked over by him, and the boys lose place for every error committed.

"For faults of greater aggravation, there are various degrees of punishment, such as double pœnas,

writing out the lesson every day for a week or fortnight, or even a month. These are chiefly reserved for moral offences, such as the smallest breach of veracity, abusive language, returning blows for words, or playing truant, a thing which seldom occurs, detection is so certain.

"The most powerful of all means for deterring from vice, is found to be the power which the master has of exposing the offender. No boy can think without shuddering, of being held up to the contempt of his school-fellows for any mean, dishonest, or cruel action; and when a case of this kind occurs, which is extremely rare, the feelings of the boys are uniformly found to be sound and virtuous, and so full of indignation against the offender, that it is necessary to caution them against persecuting him out of doors; and to remind them that he is then put upon his good behaviour, and justice satisfied until he should offend again. In all cases, it has been observed that the best way to make the punishment effectual for the amendment of the offender and useful to the rest, is rather to keep it under than carry it beyond the deserts of the culprit. Temperate admonition has a wonderful effect, when no corporal chastisement is expected. When it is, admonition is lost, both on the offender, who is all the while summoning up courage or anticipating pain, and on his school-fellows who are curious to observe how he bears the infliction.

"The abolition of corporal punishment, raises the

tone of feeling and behaviour throughout the class, makes reproof, when mildly administered, come with more weight, and produces a sentiment of kindness and attachment to the master, which enables him to mould their opinions, and form their habits of thinking and acting, to all that is upright and honourable—a power which is more valuable than the art of communicating any given quantity of Greek and Latin.

"The spirit of emulation, (the rector states,) is as great in his class as it is desirable it should be, while at the same time it is quite possible, with a little care and management, to keep it distinct from any feeling of envy or ill-will. The principle will make the pupils work till they endanger their health; but when they have perfect confidence in the master's impartiality, they submit to his decision against them as to a law of nature."

The testimony of Mr. Gray to the efficacy of this system, is also most decisive. His class consists of upwards of a hundred boys. He declares that—

"On the new system I have been enabled so to arrange my class that every boy is employed every minute of the time he is in school, either in the acquisition or communication of knowledge. The fifteen highest boys are monitors. The first thing to be done after the meeting of the class, is to see that they have their lessons distinctly. When this is ascertained, the whole class goes into divisions. In this way fifteen times as much work can be done

in the same space, and I can say with confidence, fifteen times better. From this contrivance, instead of the langour and restlessness that too frequently prevails, all is activity and energy.

"More noise indeed is heard; but the sounds are sweet, for they are the sounds of labour. Every one studies, because by the exertion of his talents he finds himself equal to every task; and ignorance is more shameful when the account is to be rendered to one of his own years, than to a man. It seems indeed, that boys are better qualified to teach boys than men. They enter more readily into their feelings: they are more sensible of the difficulties which they themselves have just mastered; and will adopt more simple and familiar modes of illustration. Nor have I ever had cause to suspect the diligence or fidelity of a monitor. To attain this station, is an object of ambition to the whole class; and when any one has risen to it, he is too much afraid of losing it, to risk the disgrace by his own misconduct. I have never once found it necessary to degrade a monitor for inattention to his division. To this there is a double check. An appeal is open to the division against the monitors, as well as to him against the division; and when every boy has gone over the whole, not a portion of the lesson, I examine a number of them promiscuously, and the lessons are said with so much more promptitude and accuracy than in the old way, that I am frequently enabled to examine as many as if no time

had been spent in divisions at all. Then I have united the advantages of both methods. By this means, every boy in the class, besides the benefits arising from saying over the whole of every lesson till he has satisfied his monitor, is separately examined by me two or three times a day. The superiority of this mode over the other is incalculable, as it tends to store the mind with useful knowledge, to infuse a love of learning, to form habits of industry, and to render the whole economy of a school delightful both to scholar and master. Of my present class that has been conducted on this plan, all have gained a more extensive knowledge of the Latin language, than I have known on any former occasion; *and not a single boy has failed.* This till now, I did not think possible. For many years it had been a subject of melancholy reflection to me, why so many *boys failed* in acquring a competent knowledge of *classical learning*, while they succeeded in every thing else. This objection to our classical schools may now be easily obviated. I do not say that every boy will be *equally* successful. Nature has made strong and marked distinctions in the extent of capacity; but I will venture to assert that every one may be made to turn his talents to the best account. One of the most important of the objects of a good education is to inspire a literary taste, and I know no way in which this may be done so effectually. What deters many boys from the prosecution of ancient learning, is

its difficulty. By aid of the Lancasterian system, asperities may be smoothed, the boy may be gently led over the threshold of the temple; and when he is once introduced, he cannot fail to be charmed by its beauties. I have never, indeed, known a young man that pursued learning that did not love it. This bias to literature is of more value than all the knowledge he earns from school. It is the shield of the young mind against the ruinous inroads of vice. In a school so regulated, it is impossible for any boy to spend his time idly.

"He must exert himself. He readily does what he finds he cannot escape; and what may have been irksome at first, soon becomes pleasant. He is happy from a consciousness of doing his duty; and habits are formed that will be useful through life. To the master, the task of superintending such a school is delightful. He is merely the helmsman that steers the bark, under perpetual sunshine, while every man on board is at his duty. *Corporal punishments are abolished.* This practice is equally degrading to the scholar who suffers, and to the master who inflicts punishment, and I firmly believe has done more mischief in our classical schools, than all other causes whatever. The boy soon considers the man whom he sees in the daily use of the torture as a tyrant and his greatest enemy; and all his ingenuity will be exacted in inventing the means of retaliation. A great objection to this mode of discipline is, that from its very nature the master

applies to it with reluctance, and for one fault that is punished, twenty escape. Thus the hope of impunity begets disorder, which, when it comes to a certain height, in its turn brings punishment. On the new method, the boys are kept in constant good humour, and no irritation is ever excited in the mind of the master. There exists between them only a reciprocity of kindness and docility. To animate a whole school with one spirit, to make them advance in the intellectual career with the same march of mind, to stimulate them to exertion by the enlivening power of emulation, to exalt them in their own opinion, has always been my object in the discharge of my public duties; and Mr. Lancaster has put into my hands an instrument by which I have been enabled to realise my fondest visions in my most sanguine mood. This is a testimony that I think due and I cannot withhold it."

"The practicability of the application of the new system to the higher branches of learning is therefore no longer a question: no experiment could have been devised better calculated to put it to the test; no report of that experiment could have been invented better adapted to prove that its success is perfect. Here then is a machine of immense power capable of producing the most extraordinary effects. Let us suppose it in full operation: let us suppose this admirable method of communicating knowledge applied in all the extent, and with all the efficacy of which experience proves it to be

capable, to the instruction of one important division of the community, that of the middle class. Of the political and moral importance of this class, there can be but one opinion. It is the strength of the community. It contains beyond all comparison, the greatest proportion of the intelligence, industry, and wealth of the state. In it are the heads that invent, the hands that execute; the enterprise that protects, and the capital by which these projects are carried into operation. The merchant, the manufacturer, the mechanist, the chemist, the artist, those who discover new arts, those who perfect old arts, those who extend science; the men in fact who think for the rest of the world, and who really do the business of the world, are the men of this class. The people of the class below, are the instruments with which they work; and those of the class above, though they may be called their governors, and may really sometimes seem to rule them, are much more often, more truly, and more completely under their control. In this country at least, it is this class which gives to the nation its character. The proper education of this portion of the people is therefore of the greatest possible importance to the well being of the state. Considering then their station, and the necessary nature of their pursuits, what is the kind of knowledge which it is most desirable to communicate to them; what are the subjects an acquaintance with which will afford them the most assistance in their occupations, and the greatest enjoyment in their hours of leisure?

We answer, decidedly, not an acquaintance with the languages of antiquity. For the lawyer, the physician, the divine, the scholar, the senator, and the statesman, Latin and Greek are indispensable. To men who are to be occupied in the ordinary business of life, whose main object is to become acquainted with things, and who are to think only in order to act, Latin and Greek are comparatively useless. There was a time when these languages contained all the knowledge possessed by mankind; now other languages contain all that was ever to be communicated by them, together with that vast stock which has been accumulated since they ceased to be the languages of living beings. They have nothing in common with the business of the world as it is transacted now. They do not enter into men's thoughts: they do not form the topic of conversation in society; they are obsolete: they have no longer a habitation or a name, except in some degree in literature, and they possess no power of developing the human faculties which is not at least equalled by other branches of learning.

As we have already said, there can be no reason why there should not be profound scholars, as well as subtle special pleaders, and learned theologians, but nothing can equal the absurdity of consuming more than three-fourths of the invaluable time appropriated to education, "in scraping together," as Milton expresses it, "so much miserable Greek or Latin," by persons to whom it is of no manner of

use, to whose pursuits it bears no kind of relation, who after all acquire it so imperfectly as to derive no pleasure from the future cultivation of it, who invariably neglect it as soon as they are released from the authority of school, and in the lapse of a few years allow every trace of it to be obliterated from the memory.

"The cultivation of language however, ought by no means to be neglected by persons of this class. They ought to be thoroughly instructed in the principles of languages in general, and to be made correctly acquainted with the elegances of the English language in particular. Perhaps also in the present state of literature, and of national intercourse, it is desirable that they should be taught the French language. Mineralogy, Botany, Zoology, Geography, Geometry, History, Chronology, Mechanics in general; with the kindred subjects of Magnetism, Electricity, Galvanism, Balistics, Mining, Geology, Land Surveying, Architecture, Husbandry, Physical Economics, Hydraulics; then the higher branches of mathematics, the higher branches of Arithmetic, Algebra, Astronomy, &c.; in a word, all the branches of learning included in the table of the proposed Chrestomathic School, ought to be taught them as fully, that is. with as great a regard to particulars, as experience may prove to be possible. These subjects are intimately connected with what is to become the business of their life: many of them constitute the very objects to which the whole attention of their minds is to be devoted.

Not to dwell on their tendency to develope the mental faculties, to awaken curiosity, to interest attention, to form the habit of observation—the observation, for example, of analogies and discrepancies,—to secure the exercise of reason in tracing these analogies and discrepancies, in deducing inferences from them, in leading to the notice of new phenomena, and consequently to the discovery of new facts; not to dwell on these circumstances, though they are of vast importance, the capital advantage of the early study of these subjects is that they must necessarily be better understood, and therefore excite a deeper interest on account of the clear, precise, comprehensive, and scientific elementary knowledge which will thus be cummunicated respecting them. These advantages are more certainly secured for the reason, that each of these subjects is taught in connexion with all the others included in this comprehensive course; for this extension of the field of learning not only expands the mind, not only teaches more things, but teaches those that are communicated better than they could otherwise have been understood. The course of instruction which is here proposed would certainly afford to this class of the community sufficient intellectual cultivation; but in order to secure the ultimate object of all education, that is in order to form enlightened men and virtuous citizens, it would be highly desirable, toward the termination of the course, to direct their attention to some other sub-

jects, the study of which is usually postponed to a later period in life, and the teaching of which is assigned to a higher school. The subjects to which we allude are, history, considered in relation to its more important uses, particularly the history of England, government, commerce, political economy, and the philosophy of the human mind.

"We can easily imagine the astonishment and the scorn which will be felt by some persons at the bare mention of such topics, as fitted for the study of a school-boy; and assuredly they are above the comprehension of school-boys of fifteen or sixteen years of age, educated in the ancient method. But it must be borne in mind, that the boys whom it is here proposed to initiate into these studies, and who in general will have no opportunity of going to a university, have not spent three-fourths of their time in learning jargon by rote; that every moment which they have passed in school has been actively and efficiently occupied; that the subjects to which their attention has been directed, have been adapted to their capacity, and congenial to their taste; that nothing has been taught them obscurely and imperfectly, but that their knowledge, so far as it has extended, has always been clear, exact, and complete: whence they must have gained a vast accession of time, and have experienced both a more early and a more perfect developement of the mental faculties.

"A boy educated in this manner, will be as com-

petent to study the elements of the subjects mentioned above, at the age of fifteen as at the age of thirty.

"In the first place, then, we would have every boy taken from the middle rank of life, instructed in the true uses of history. We would have it demonstrated to him, that while it improves the understanding, it prepares for the proper discharge of the duties of life; that it frees the mind from prejudice; that it is the foundation of all real improvement in the science of government; that it strengthens the sentiments of virtue; that it produces an enlightened patriotism; that it forms a taste for solid glory and true greatness; and that it teaches just conceptions both of the strength and weakness of human nature. We would have his attention directed to the sources of history, and the methods which have been used for transmitting to posterity the knowledge of past events; the application of other kinds of knowledge to the study of history ought to be pointed out; an account of the most important objects of attention to a reader of history, should be presented to him, as well as an explanation of the circumstances which contribute to the real wealth, prosperity, and glory of a country. Then the attention should be directed, with all the detail that may be found practicable, to the history of England in particular. Its memorable eras should be pointed out; the origin of its institutions should be shown, and their progress traced; its struggles for

liberty, civil and religious, should be dwelt on; the most probable means of securing its freedom, and promoting its prosperity, should be explained; and its illustrious men who have rendered their country, and the very age in which they flourished, glorious, should be exhibited to the admiration of the youthful mind. Here are abundant materials for reflection; here are admirable lessons of morality; here are means of kindling the purest love of liberty, of exciting the noblest emulation, and of producing the most enlightened and most fervent patriotism.

"In the like manner, in the higher classes of these schools, ought to be explained the true nature and object of government; the advantages and disadvantages of its different forms, that is, the greater or less facility afforded by them for accomplishing its great purpose; the rights and duties of the governed; the rights and duties of governors, and so on. It ought never to be forgotten, that the minds which are forming in these schools, are soon to take an active part in the service of their country; that they must have, and will have a great and commanding influence on the measures pursued, on the laws enacted, on the justice administered.

"The commerce of the country is carried on almost exclusively by persons of this class: it is therefore important that the means should be afforded them of forming enlightened and comprehensive conceptions of the subject. The capital advantages of commerce, the manner in which it produces

those advantages, the circumstances on which its power of increasing the wealth and prosperity of a country depends, its influence on landed and other species of property, expedients which may, or may not be adopted for its encouragement; these and similar subjects ought to be illustrated. There is no subject in which this class of the community is more deeply interested; none in which the views they take, and the conduct they pursue will be attended with more important results; none, an acquaintance with which is more necessary to guide their exertions, to prevent the misdirection of their labour, and to secure even to their benevolence itself beneficent effects, than that of political economy.

"Some knowledge of the laws which govern the operations of the human mind is necessary to conduct any mental process with success, in order to save much valuable time, and to prevent much waste of labour in the investigation of subjects which there is no hope of ever comprehending. To understand how habits are formed, how prejudices are engendered, how the judgment is influenced, how the will is determined, how the character is superinduced, and, consequently, how habits, prejudices, judgment, will, and character, may be modified, or changed, or fixed; to entertain just conceptions of the merit and demerit of actions and characters, of virtue and vice, of reward and punishment,—all these subjects are of vital importance, they involve

the most deep and permanent interest of individuals and communities: to persons of this class especially, just conceptions of them are essential to the proper discharge of the most momentous duties which devolve upon them. From our own actual observation and experience of the capacity of the youthful mind, when properly trained, we pronounce that these subjects are perfectly within its comprehension, and we know that it is possible to make it intensely interested in their study. This study would perhaps be best conducted by delivering at stated periods, to the elder and more advanced boys, whose admission into this class might be made a reward for their past diligence, for their actual attainments, and for general good conduct, short and familiar lectures on these subjects, in the manner of Dr. Priestly's Lectures on History: at the commencement of every new lecture to examine the students minutely on the preceding; to require them to give an account of it, not in the words of the lecture but in their own; to go over the same ground again and again, until it appears certain that it is understood perfectly, and then, and not till then, to encourage the pupils to write essays or themes on the topics that have been discussed. For perfect instruction in these subjects, and every other which it is proposed to include in the new school, nothing is requisite but elementary books, adapted to the principles of the new system: these, indeed are wanted; but surely it is not too much to hope, that

there are men of science, whose benevolence will induce them to undertake a labour, which, however humble it may appear, can be properly performed only by a truly philosophical mind. Can any scholar be more nobly employed than in writing such a book on language; or any natural, moral, or political philosopher, than in disclosing to the youthful understanding, in the most lucid order, and in the plainest terms, the profound yet simple principles of these respective sciences?

"We have dwelt so long on the intellectual part of education, that we have left room to say but little of moral instruction, and but little need be said of it. It does not require discussion. It is impossible to teach morality to children by precepts. The correctness of their moral feeling, and the integrity of their moral conduct, must be secured, if secured by the discipline to which they are subjected. Boys do not listen to sermons; the eloquence of the moralist and divine, though the most perfect imaginable, is lost upon them. They must be made honourable, by exhibiting to their view honourable conduct; they must be made virtuous, by being led to the practice of virtue from habits superinduced by the silent operation of the circumstances under which they are placed. They need not be told what is right: like men they all know their duty sufficiently; the grand difficulty is to practice it: the only means of securing its practice is the formation of the habit of practising it; and the formation

of that habit, the discipline peculiar to the new system of education affords aids so admirable and so powerful, that it will be found, on examination, as conducive to the cultivation of virtue, as it is favourable to the acquisition of learning.

The grand moral advantage of this system is, that it places and keeps boys in a condition in which there is little opportunity of doing wrong. Their time is completely occupied: their attention is constantly fixed: they are never idle: they never deviate from a regular and steady course: whence the habit is formed of doing every thing in its proper time and place. If the temptation to yield to bodily listlessness and mental dissipation occur, they are immediately roused to exertion by the active spirits around them, and compelled to put forth their strength, in order to keep pace with companions, by whom they feel it would be an intolerable disgrace to be outstripped. This practical moral lesson is repeated every day and every hour. The mind is induced to postpone its gratification as often as its temptation to yield to it recurs, and is stimulated to the steady performance of its duty.

"Thus the power of self-contest, that virtue upon which all moral excellence depends, is acquired, and is formed into a habit. Those who are acquainted with the mechanism of the human mind, and know how the law of nature, and the power of practising it with steadiness are generated, will admit that this,

though not perhaps one of the most obvious, is one of the most real and important excellencies of this admirable system.

"Another lesson of great value afforded by this system, arises from the plan of confiding all punishment to the boys themselves. By this expedient their attention is directed in the best, because in the most practical manner, to the circumstances on which good and bad conduct depend; to the feelings and actions which render a human being an object of praise or blame, of reward or punishment. They form their own code of morals, and that code is sure to be better adapted to their condition than older heads can make it. The laws they impose, are enacted because experience has taught them they are necessary; whence they are respected, and a rigid adherence to them is exacted. The same experience makes them acquainted with the exact degree of guilt incurred by any particular violation of the laws; for they are excellent judges of motives which have led to such violation, and can estimate with astonishing accuracy, the circumstances of aggravation or palliation on which the measure of guilt essentially depends. Whatever punishment is imposed, therefore, is almost uniformly just in a degree which is equalled in no other case in which punishment is inflicted by human agency; and it is this feeling which pervades the mind of every member of this little community—that his sentence, whatever it be, will be rigidly

just,—that renders punishment under this system so exceedingly efficacious, at the same time that it operates to such a remarkable extent in the prevention of offences. These principles have received an excellent illustration, and a most complete confirmation, in the details presented by the author of Public Education. To this work we would particularly direct the attention of the reader. It details the result of an original and independent attempt to apply some of the most important principles of the new system of education to instruction in the higher branches of learning, and especially to the cultivation of a more manly spirit, and a more just and sound morality. The great principle on which this is attempted is, 'to leave as much as possible all power in the hands of the boys themselves.' To this end they are permitted to elect a committee, which enacts the laws of the school, subject, however, to the veto of the head master. There are also courts of justice for the trial of both civil and criminal cases, and a vigorous police for the preservation of order. This system has been in operation several years in a school consisting of about seventy boys. The results are detailed with great candour, and many of the facts are highly curious and interesting.

"But of all the moral advantages of the new system, perhaps the greatest arises from the mildness of the punishments which it imposes. Its punishments appeal to the rational, not to the animal na-

ture of man; and are calculated to influence the principles of his mind, rather than to impose torture on his body. Every blow inflicted for the correction of a bad action, excites ten bad feelings; and it is somewhat absurd to attempt to purify the stream by corrupting the source. A boy may be flogged for a fault, and the fault may be corrected; but it is corrected not in consequence of the flogging, but in spite of it. No virtuous principle was ever instilled into the human mind by stripes: their only effect is to irritate and harden, to make slaves and to train up tyrants.

"We cannot dismiss the subject of education, without adverting to one topic, which, though of paramount importance, is entirely neglected in this country; we refer to that of health. The connexion is intimate between the soundness of the bodily organs, and intellectual vigour and moral sanity. Such is the sympathy of the mind with the body, that the infirmity of the one is the feebleness of the other. Mental strength, clear moral discrimination, noble feeling, never did, and never can long exist in a crazy constitution,—in a frame, feeble and tottering, tormented with "cramps and side-stitches, that pen the breath up." To think clearly, to feel generously, and to act vigorously, man must be in health. Persons take the most judicious care of their horses; they observe what conduces to their strength as animals; they neither neglect them on one hand nor pamper them on the other: they diet them, they groom

them, they exercise them, in the manner which experience shows to be best adapted to put them, and keep them in good condition; that is, to give them the greatest firmness of muscle, combined with the greatest animal courage and vigour. The health of man, as an animal is entirely neglected. He is neither lodged, nor clothed, nor dieted, nor exercised, with a view of giving to his bodily frame the greatest strength, and to maintain it in the utmost perfection. The ancients were wiser. Their baths, their unguents, their exercises, their games, were obviously designed to nerve the body, to arm it against the vicissitudes of the seasons, and to render it capable of sustaining every kind of fatigue, and every degree of privation. The men of the present age are a puny race: their stature is smaller, their muscles are feebler, their joints are less firmly knit, their step is less elastic, their countenance is more pallid, their whole appearance is that of a physically weak and degenerated people, compared with their forefathers.

"By the proper regulation of diet, by vigorous exercise, by the encouragement of athletic games in the intervals of school hours, an astonishing change might be produced on the health and strength of our youth. And here we protest against the number of hours which boys are confined in school. It is alike injurious to the health of the body and vigour of the mind. It is utterly impossible that the attention can be kept up during a tenth part of the

time in which they must have the appearance of learning their lessons; and nothing can be conceived more pernicious than this pretended occupation and real idleness, this conjunction of the most painful bodily weariness with the most complete mental dissipation."

This interesting article concludes with the following emphatic observation :—

"On this admirable system of education, (the monitorial,) the brightest hopes of the human race may anchor. This system has commenced its career; it must go on; it will become universal: we may share its triumphs; we cannot prevent them."

Westminster Review, No. 1.

On the moral effects of the new system, when applied to large schools, Dr. Bell observes,—

"On the grand point of morals, the danger is more imminent at a public school than at home. But whether it is of a more alarming tendency at the one than the other, has been made a question. When the empire of mind of the new school shall be duly extended to classical schools, the most beneficent results will be seen in the religious and moral world: and public schools will henceforth rise in fame and celebrity. When the most regular and orderly boys—the ministers of the master—shall give the cue to the whole school, a public school may, perhaps, be rendered more conducive to public virtue, than a private family—considering

that youth must sooner or later encounter the temptations and dangers of the intercourses of society. A public school prepares boys, in early life, to act their part on the grand theatre of the world, of which their school is a miniature. It gradually, and before it is too late, disentangles them from the errors and faults, produced by inexperience, and engendered by favouritism or indulgence. Here, as every where, let us listen to our faithful guide, for quoting, and as it were, transcribing whom, I make no apology: persuaded that I cannot perform a more acceptable office to the generality of my readers, who have not his admirable institution in their hands, or who do not wish to wander over his pages, in search of what is applicable to the early education of youth in the present day.

"Mitto amicitias, quæ ad senectutem usque firmissimæ durant religiosâ quâdam necessitudine imbutæ. Neque enim est sanctius, sacris iisdem quam studiis initiari. Sensum ipsum, qui communis dicitur, ubi discet, cum se a congressu, qui non hominibus solum, sed mutis quoque animalibus naturalis est, segregârit? Adde, quod domi ea sola discere potest, quæ ipsi præcipientur: in schola, etiam quæ aliis. Audiet multa quotidie probari, multa corrigi, proderit alicujus objurgata desidia: proderit laudata industra.

"I shall just mention the friendships contracted at public schools, which are cemented with such inviolable affection, that they continue in full force

even in old age; for nothing is more binding or endearing than for men to have been initiated together in the same sacred studies. When shall he, who separates himself from society, which is natural not only to men, but even to dumb animals, attain to what is called common sense? Add to this, that at home he can learn those things only, which are taught himself; but in school he may likewise learn what others are taught. He will have daily opportunities of hearing many things approved, many things corrected. He will profit, when the slothful are chidden, and when the diligent are praised. QUINTILIAN.

" ' Not differing more, the cordial draught of health,
From the slow poison that destroys by stealth,
Than emulation's kindling, heaven born flame,
And envy's meteor glare;—one lures to shame,
The other rolls obscuring mists away,
And lights us onward to eternal day.'

Elements of Tuition, Part III. *p.* 233.

The influence of such a chastened emulation as that which prevails in well regulated public schools; in bringing together and forming into habits of social intimacy and generous rivalship, boys of various ranks and conditions, is forcibly alluded to by that distinguished orator and patriot, H. Brougham, Esq. in a speech made at a public dinner, which was given him at Edinburgh, on the 5th of April, 1825. The following is an extract:—

"In this town it was, as was truly observed by our worthy chairman, that I first imbibed the principles of a liberal Scottish education; and it is fit that I should tell you, as many of you may not have heard what I have frequently told to others, in other places, and in other meetings, that I have seen no other plan of education so efficient as that which is established in this city. I have seen much of public systems of education, and have had great opportunities of observing the habits of teachers, and of hearing the expectations founded upon, and knowing the effects of various systems, and I certainly have never yet seen any one place, or any one system so well adapted for training up good citizens, as well as learned and virtuous men, as the High School of Edinburgh, and the Scottish Universities. Great improvements no doubt may and will be made, even in these seminaries. But what I have to say of the High School of Edinburgh, and say as the ground of the preference I give it over others, and even over another Academy lately established in this city, on what is said to be a more improved principle—what I say is this—that such a school is altogether invaluable in a free state—in a state having higher objects in view by the education of its youth than a mere knowledge of the Latin and Greek languages, and the study of prosody. That in a state like this, higher objects should be kept in view, there can be no doubt, though I confess I have passed much of my time in these studies my-

self. Yet a school like the old High School of Edinburgh, is invaluable, and for what is it so? It is because men of the highest and lowest rank in society, send their children to be educated together. The oldest friend I have in the world, your worthy Vice President, and myself, were at the High School of Edinburgh together, and in the same class along with others who still possess our friendship, and some of them in a rank of life still higher than his. One of them was a nobleman, who is now in the House of Peers; and some of them were sons of shopkeepers in the lowest part of the Cowgate of Edinburgh—shops of the most inferior description —and one or two of them were the sons of menial servants in the town. There they were, sitting side by side, giving and taking places from each other, without the slightest impression on the part of my noble friends of any superiority on their parts to the other boys, or any ideas of inferiority on the part of the other boys to them; and this is my reason for preferring the Old High School of Edinburgh to other and what may be termed more patrician schools, however well regulated or conducted. As to the college of Edinburgh, it enjoys many singular benefits, and that it may long enjoy them, most certainly is the earnest desire of us all. Not only the greatest men of genius, and the first scholars of the present day, have been educated in it, but it has that which in my opinion makes it greatly superior to any school of education in the south, estab-

lished on mere monastic rules and principles, namely, that while the youth enjoy the benefits of education by day, they live under their father's roof at night, take their meals at the same board, and have the innocency of their morals preserved. So deeply am I penetrated with its vast superiority in every respect, that I consider it one of the first establishments in the kingdom. I have taken a part recently, and I have certainly very great happiness in announcing to you to-day, what has been done on the subject of education, because I know you will be glad to hear that upon the Scotch model an establishment is likely to be formed in the metropolis of the sister kingdom; a school on the model of the old High School of Edinburgh is there about to be established; and steps have been taken for the almost immediate establishment of a university, to bestow, upon the Scotch plan, the blessings of a scientific education, on the countless inhabitants of London." *Westmoreland Advertiser, April* 16, 1825.

As an allusion is made in the preceding extract to the superiority of the methods of instruction pursued in the Scotch universities, (and it may here be remarked, that the eulogium applies with particular force to the university of Glasgow,) it will not be inappropriate to our subject, to state, that the advantages of the monitorial system have been long experienced, (in one of the classes at least,) in the last named university. We are informed by profes-

sor Jardine in his excellent "Outlines of Philosophical Education," (second edition, Glasgow, 1825,) in the chapter on the method of determining the merits of the themes, after alluding to the manner of examining the exercises of each student separately, and of passing judgment on each, that "This regular method of appreciating the merits of themes, in a class of philosophy, has not been much followed; and it may perhaps appear still more novel and hazardous to commit the determination of the merits of the themes to the students themselves. Yet according to the plan of conducting the business, this plan is absolutely necessary. With all the time and attention the teacher can bestow on so numerous a class,(nearly 200,) and with all the expedition acquired by long practice, he cannot possibly accomplish the examination of all the themes; and yet, unless they are all regularly examined and brought into public notice, the attention of those students whose exercises are overlooked, will soon become relaxed, their spirits depressed, and their feelings irritated. If our essays pass without notice, they naturally ask, why need we give ourselves so much trouble in composing them? The whole themes, therefore, must be examined, or the plan must be given up."

"This situation has suggested a method of review of which much use is made in the logic (or philosophy) class, which not only removes that objection, but brings with it incalculable advantages which

cannot be obtained in any other way. When the themes are ready for examination, the professor makes choice of ten or twelve students, most distinguished by their abilities and progress, and to them are committed the review of such themes as he cannot himself overtake. These are, in the language of the class, called examinators, a less assuming title than that of critics or censors: to each of them a certain number of themes is committed, for which of course they are accountable, and which they are required to read over carefully, to examine in every part, that they may be able to appreciate their merits, and to give in a report in the form of a written criticism attached to the theme, and signed by the examinator.

"This mode of appreciating the merit of themes, in a philosophy class, may appear unsatisfactory or objectionable, but experience has sufficiently shown, that many advantages are derived from it. It has always happened, I believe, in most public schools, that the more advanced students, in some way or other, have given assistance to inferior scholars. This method was practised here long before the names of Lancaster or Bell were known to the public. The management of such assistance is no doubt somewhat delicate, and the advantages connected with it, depend a little upon the experience and prudence of the teacher. Were not the examinators subject to strict discipline and control, the practice, so far from being useful, might be extreme-

ly pernicious. Ignorance, conceit, partiality, and petulence on the part of these juvenile assistants, might give occasion to disappointments, chagrin, and irritation, in the minds of such as conceived that their exercises had been unjustly criticised. *But with the precautions that are taken, these disagreeable effects are altogether prevented.* The examinators are publicly and solemnly appointed to their office, which is considered as highly honourable; and before they enter upon it, they are taken bound to discharge it according to the instructions which they receive, from which they are made to understand that there must be no deviation whatever.

"To give full effect to this method of discipline, one step farther has been found necessary. Among so many spirited, industrious young men, it may be expected that the author of the theorem is not always satisfied with the judgment of his examinator; and he may perhaps be suspicious of ignorance, or misrepresentation, in the criticism. The more the author is conscious of ability and industry exerted in the composition, the more apt will he be to question any fault which has been found. To remove, therefore, every ground of misunderstanding, and to give encouragement to farther exertions of ingenuity or industry, the work of criticism is continued. The author of the theme is allowed to peruse the criticism, and to return it to the professor with such explanatory remarks as he may think necessary; and on certain more important points, this warfare

is carried one step farther. But the professor takes the first opportunity of putting an end to the controversy, by interposing his own judgment, to which the parties cheerfully submit. During this not unfrequently amusing conflict, new lights and prospects are discovered, which often conduct these juvenile critics to topics beyond their original contemplations."

"The utility and efficacy of the rules by which these themes are conducted, have been demonstrated by long experience. *Not* half a dozen cases have occurred for these last fifty years, in which it became necessary to inflict censure for improper discharge of this duty. Mistaken as the examinators must often be, in their remarks, they almost always express their opinion, such as it is, in modest and inoffensive terms. When any important difference has occurred between the author and the examinator, the professor has ever found it easy to settle it to their mutual satisfaction. Young persons will always prove docile and reasonable, when they feel that they are treated with candour, with kindness, and without any undue partialities. Esteem and confidence open the minds of ingenuous youth, and keep alive a sense of obligation and of duty; at least this has always accorded with my experience.

"Finally the method of conducting the themes and criticisms of the first philosophy class, is highly beneficial, both to the authors and examinators;

and has been found, from experience, an excellent expedient for calling forth the intellectual energies of the student. There are few situations in which young men can be placed more favourable to application and industry. Their interest and honour combine, with the exhortations of the teacher in disposing them to an animated discharge of their duty. The authors of the themes compose them under the impression of their being subjected to a strict review; the examinators employ their utmost efforts to discover imperfections and defects; and the teacher himself must acknowledge, that, by thus watching over, and directing this intercourse between his students, he has derived much experimental instruction in the proper manner of conducting the business of education." *Jardine's Outlines, p.* 366.

The advantages, (as above described) which have been long experienced in the University of Glasgow, in the class of mental philosophy, might unquestionably be obtained in every school, and in every department of knowledge, in which the class is too numerous for the individual attentions of the master or professor. It only requires a proper organization and a judicious procedure in the classes to render such monitorial assistance not only efficient, with respect to the knowledge to be gained, but the business of instruction will be more agreeable both to the teacher and pupil.

In France, where the principles of the new system have been studied by learned men, well qualified to appreciate its advantages, and to perceive its numerous applications, it has in several cases received a more extended direction than in any other country. In a memoir read to the "Société Médicale d'Emulation," of Paris, on the 18th of September, 1822, by J. P. Beullac, M. D. of the Faculty of Paris, the title of which is "L'ENSEIGNEMENT MUTUEL, *appliqué a l'étude des principes élémentaire de la medicine*," the following remarks occur:—

"Mutual instruction is now established; it will be hereafter superfluous to prove its excellence, and to amuse one's self with the refutation of its antagonists. The small number of those who, without force of intellect or genius, wish to retrograde towards the age of ignorance, or of men, devoted to ancient customs, have brought into this memorable struggle of darkness against light, nothing but the arguments of routine and declamation. Their folly has been laughed at, whenever their opposition has appeared to be honest and sincere. People and governments who believe that knowledge is the most fruitful source of happiness to man, and to the prosperity of nations, have been anxious to favour a rising institution, and to bestow upon its propagators distinctions and rewards; and rapidly have we seen the scheme of mutual instruction extending itself over the continent, and even dispensing its benefits to the new world. The motives which

have induced certain princes to banish it from their states are well known ; their vain pretexts have not been sufficient to veil their fears and their weakness. Grateful posterity already pays a tribute of eulogy to those who were the first to make known this sure and easy method of gaining instruction."

" The method of mutual instruction is thus named, because it is founded upon a reciprocity of instruction on the part of the pupils. It is a daily repetition of things which they learn, and which belong in a special manner to the province of memory. By this method, are taught with promptitude and certainty, reading, writing, and calculation, and we cannot doubt that eventually it will be applied to the elements of all the sciences and all the arts. Already in France we see that music, drawing, &c. are taught upon this system. I have attempted to apply its principles to the study of the elementary principles of medicine, and I propose in this memoir to examine upon what basis I found my expectations of success.

The writer, after stating the disadvantages which the students of medicine have to encounter in their attendance upon the public courses, observes :—

" The first elements of medicine, by the aid of mutual instruction, become a more easy study,—a study in which the pupils gain instruction with infinitely greater readiness than in the public courses. They exercise themselves besides in speaking before their fellows, their self-love is excited, and the most

feeble among them augments his own progress in doubling that of the laborious student."

"Here as in other places, success is not equivocal; and I might state the proof of what I advance agreeably to the verification of facts, and by the experience of three years, and the example of a small number of pupils, whose indefatigable application has favoured my intentions, and realised my hopes and expectations. Scarely known when I opened my elementary course of medical studies, it was necessary to commence with a small auditory; our zeal and exactitude were not slackened, and we now receive a flattering reward, when we see our instructions opening for the fourth year under the most favourable auspices."

The author in his memoir proceeds to point out the nature of the different branches of medical study, their adaptation to the monitorial system, and the manner in which he conducts his pupils in conformity to its practice.

This memoir was referred, for examination to a committee, consisting of Drs. Cloquet and Bricheteau. The following remarks occur in their report:—

"The first part of this memoir presents a sort of historical eulogium upon mutual instruction, which has come out victorious from its struggle with the partizans of darkness, who had formed a *holy alliance* for the protection of ignorance. There are doubtless none among you, gentlemen, who are not pretty

well acquainted with what is contained in this first part: the author, in bringing it into view has only the merit of being the historian of an important and useful discovery."

"In the second part of his memoir, Mr. Beullac endeavours to demonstrate, that all the facts which form the basis of science, belong chiefly to the province of memory; that these facts, to be properly retained and reproduced in the mind as often as occasions require, must be incessantly recalled; and that, under this point of view, there is no method more efficacious than that of mutual instruction. All that is material and descriptive, appears, in short, well fixed in the memory, only after having been forgotten and recalled a great number of times, and in relation to anatomy, which is *par excellence*, a descriptive science, the author might have found a support in the opinion of the late M. Sabatier, who said, that it is necessary to forget it six times before it can be properly understood."

"The method of mutual instruction, employed for the first time in medical studies, appears to us, as to M. Beullac, to unite the advantage of recalling incessantly, the young pupil to his work, and of circumscribing it within a certain number of objects which do not surpass his intelligence and his actual capacity; and a certain result also of the method will be to render him more familiar, and more thoroughly accustomed to those exact and complete

descriptions of which he may stand in need in the practice of his art."

"In a word, the procedure of M. Beullac is simple and easy; it has already been useful to many pupils who have commenced the vast study of the medical sciences, who make, in general, a rapid progress in the branches in which they are engaged, when docile and attentive to the councils of the professor. We think that students ought not to slight this elementary instruction, the force of which, though less scholastic, is more than compensated by a prompt and easy advancement."

"The memoir of M. Beullac, containing a new application to the study of medicine of a method become celebrated by the attacks of its enemies, and the active defence of its numerous partizans, we propose, gentlemen, to place it at the disposal of your committee of publication, persuaded that the subscribers to your bulletin will thereby discover a new proof of your zeal to acquaint them with whatever is useful, curious and interesting in the progress of medical instructions, and of the meliorations of which it is susceptible."

Signed,

HIPP. CLOQUET ET BRICHETEAU.

Certified,

L. R. VILLERMÉ

Secretary General.

Paris, October 16, 1822.

In a valuable work, first published in 1823, entitled, "A practical essay on the manner of studying and teaching in Scotland; or a guide to students at the university, to parish schoolmasters, and family tutors," the author remarks, (page 23,) "The doctrine of Lily,* has long been known in a general way; but it is only in the present age that it has been justly appreciated; and it has been reserved for the ignorant Mahometans on the coast of Coromandel, to teach to Europe the value of one of the most important maxims of her own philosophers. Even now, its application is in a great measure confined to schools for the poor; and those who have the means to obtain a master, or have got to college, think it below them, but under certain modifications, it may be useful to all who learn, without distinction *of age or subject.* The students in the universities have already made a considerable step towards adopting it, and have only to give a new shape and object to their present debating societies, to have in their hands one of the most powerful instruments for their own improvements." Again, "The time that a teacher can bestow on each pupil is shorter than most people are aware. In a parish with a thousand inhabitants, a good teacher may depend on having thirty scholars during summer, and seventy or eighty during winter. In summer he can give only twelve minutes a

* "Qui docet indoctos, licet indoctissimus esset,
Ipse brevi reliquis doctior esse queat."

ay to each boy; in winter only five; a time totally ıadequate to teaching any thing whatever. But hort as it is, it cannot be all applied to the purpoes of teaching: a great deal of time is lost in keepng order, in flogging, scolding, and a number of ıetty distractions. One boy is saying a lesson; two ır three are waiting to see if their sums are right; ınd half a dozen are asking each a different word. 3y clubbing three or four together in a class, means ıre found to give four lessons a day; but still the nterval between them is too long for the attention ıf children, and a great part of it is completely lost n trifling."

"This tremendous loss of time is the first thing hat a schoolmaster ought to avoid; and this can ɔe accomplished only by establishing a proper orıer in the school. Every boy ought to have the means of satisfying every doubt in regard to his esson, and should be made to repeat it frequently. Lessons should never be so long as to tire the at:ention of the youngest pupil: they should be heard ıs soon as learned, and new lessons should be prescribed. At the same time the teacher should never be interrupted in the performance of his duty. To attain all these points is by no means easy, and in the present state of our schools would be impossible. We shall endeavour to point out how they may be accomplished in a considerable degree, without losing any of the advantages of the present order, or rather disorder." After several directions

relative to the choice of books, and the division of the schools into classes, the author observes :—

"The next expedient is the appointment of monitors. These should be of two kinds; general, for the whole school, answering to our censors; and, particular, for each class. The former should be chosen out of the steadiest boys of the school, to keep the catalogue, and to preserve order when the master is occupied. They take their turn day about, and bear some badge of office, such as a small cane," &c.

"Each class ought to have its monitor taken from the one above it. Only good scholars, should, however, be chosen for this purpose, and all those whom the master judges capable of it should wear some petty distinction, a bit of ribbon in the cap, or a button attached to some part of the coat by a string, &c." *Page* 178.

The author proceeds to give various directions respecting the operation of the school, but for these we must refer to the book itself.

The reader will probably conclude that enough has now been advanced to give this subject all the illustration it is capable of, and that his time and patience might be spared from any further extracts for the purpose of demonstrating the nature and efficacy of the monitorial system of education, as practised upon the form of Bell or Lancaster, or any other inventor.

In this opinion I should fully coincide, was it not apparent from the contest which this system has had to sustain with its opponents, and the untiring efforts which are still made in various places to decry its advantages, and to confine children within the old routine of the schools, that there are no prejudices more deeply rooted than those which relate to this very subject, and no class more pertinacious in their attachment to ancient forms than teachers who have been long habituated to the course in which they themselves were educated. On this account, every example of an actual progress in the melioration of systems and modes of education, ought to be prominently exhibited, and generally known. This consideration will, I trust, justify me on the present occasion, in stating the substance of an interesting and able report made in 1812, by M. Cuvier, on the primary schools of Holland.* This report constitutes the 5th chapter of the "Nouveau Système D'Education," of Count Lasteyrie, before mentioned.

"It will be perceived," (says the author of the 'Nouveau Systeme,') "that various methods in use in the schools of Holland, for more than thirty years, have been adopted in those of Lancaster. The Hollanders wisely imitated all the good practices

* Rapport sur les Etablissemens d'Instruction publique en Hollande, et sur les moyens des les réunir a l'Université Imperiale, 1812. A very small number only of this work was printed, and it is not now for sale.

which were existing, or had existed before the epoch in which they founded their primary schools. But if," as says the learned author of the report, "the *system of primary instruction in Holland is admirable, and above all praise, and if it has obtained such happy success*, the new method presents advantages still greater, and results still more happy, and is consequently worthy of drawing the attention, and exciting the zeal of every good Frenchman.

"It will be remarked, that the excellent organization established in Holland, took its rise, and attained its perfection solely by the efforts of a few men penetrated by the love of their country. It is to be hoped," (adds Count Lasteyrie,) "that such a fine example will excite among us that public spirit, which always produces great moral and political results." The author of the report thus proceeds :—

"It would be difficult for us to describe the effect produced upon us by the first primary school which we entered in Holland It was one of those supported by public charity, for the children of the most indigent families, those who in many other countries would be obliged to drag out a miserable life, on the highways, either as mendicants or robbers. Two large, airy, and well lighted halls contained three hundred of these children, all in cleanly condition, placing themselves, without disorder, noise, or impoliteness, and performing, at a concerted signal, all that was required of them, without the master's uttering, necessarily, a single word.

Not only do they learn by certain and ready methods, to read currently, to write a fine hand, and with entire correctness to perform mentally and by figures, all the calculations necessary in common life, and also to state their thoughts neatly in little essays; but the books which are given them, the pieces which they copy, are so well arranged, and succeed each other in an order so judicious, the precepts and examples are mingled with so much art, that these children become penetrated, at the same time, with the truths of religion, the precepts of morality, and all the knowledge which can be useful in active life, or consoling to them in misfortune. Care is taken to ascertain, by frequent questions, and by exciting them to state their difficulties, that nothing of what they read is lost upon their understandings.

"Finally, prayers and hymns sung in concert, composed expressly for the purpose, and breathing the sentiments of duty or gratitude, give a charm to this instruction, and at the same time impress a religious and tender feeling well calculated to confirm the effects. A master and two assistants, taken from the scholars themselves, govern this large number of children without noise, without invective, without any corporal punishment, but by keeping them always interested and always occupied.

"The first sight of this school gave us an agreeable surprise: when we had entered into all the details we could not avoid a real emotion, in thinking

on what these children would have become, if abandoned to themselves, and what they actually were; but, we said to ourselves, this is perhaps a solitary example, produced by the efforts of a wealthy city, or by the zeal of a few citizens of extraordinary generosity.

"We were informed, however, that as we advanced through the country, we should divest ourselves of this error; and, in fact, we found every where the primary schools upon the same footing, with the exception of those in which the masters, *from age or habit, could not disengage themselves from their old routine.* It is not even in the cities that they are the best. Even on the frontiers of Groningen, and many leagues from the great road, we found, in the villages, primary schools as numerous, and better composed, and better kept than those of the largest towns; because in the cities, the children of the rich are taught in their own houses, whereas in the villages they go to school with others: but every where we observed the same cheerfulness, the same decency, the same neatness in the pupils and the masters; and every where the same instruction.

"What is the most remarkable on this subject is, that these great results have been obtained in a few years, and by simple means, without constraint, without requiring of the masters any sacrifice, and without uniting them by any other means than by their natural obligations as public functionaries. A

brief recital of this important operation belongs essentially to our subject.

"Thirty years ago, the little schools of Holland resembled those of other countries. Masters, almost as ignorant as those they were bound to instruct, were scarcely successful, in the course of several years, in teaching their pupils to read and write indifferently. These schools had no general superintendents; the greater number originated in private speculation; various religious communions supported schools for their own poor under the supervision of deacons, but these schools were exclusively reserved for the children of the parish; those whose parents were not inscribed in some church had no resources; even the catholics had no schools, though their churches were so numerous in the country; the deacons of the reformed churches changing, agreeably to a certain order, had no fixed principles. The result of all this was, that a great part of the youth were stagnating in ignorance and immorality.

"The first ameliorations were produced by the efforts of a benevolent society called the '*Society of Public Good*,' (der Maatschappy tot nut vant' allgemeen,) which itself owed its formation to the zeal of a pious and humane individual.

"John Neuven-Huysen, a Mennonite minister, at Monikendam, in North Holland, perceiving that the numerous associations formed in the United Provinces for the advancement of commerce, and science,

and charity, although they contributed to spread among the people moral and religious ideas, did not produce all the effects which were desired, because the works which they published were too extended, too learned, and too dear to be purchased by those for whom they were destined, and because there existed no point of connection sufficiently intimate between them and that portion of the people to whom their assistance was the most necessary.

"Having conceived a plan more simple, and a procedure more direct, he began about 1784, to associate with him a few friends; these attracted others; the utility of the thing once known, multiplied the number of members, so that, from 1785, they were obliged to divide the association according to the cantons in which were the greatest number of subscribers. These divisions were called departments; each of which had its own administration, and the number of them extended as the society increased. In truth, the advantages of the institution were so apparent to charitable men; and the various governments which succeeded each other in Holland shared so fully in the public persuasion, that it enjoyed a continually increasing prosperity, and in 1809 it included more than 7000 members.

"The early funds of the society were employed in encouraging by premiums the composition of little works which treated in a popular manner of the

most important truths of religion and morality. To these were added by degrees, publications on the principles most important to be understood, of domestic and rural economy, natural philosophy, and hygiene, or the preservation of health. Some of them treated of particular professions, not neglecting even the propagation of vaccination and instruction in midwifery. The effect of these works, simple, short, and cheap, was soon apparent. There was in Holland, as in other places, a popular work styled, 'the Shepherd's Almanac,' filled with puerile prescriptions derived from astrology; and as in other places the country people wished no other. The society prepared a Calendar, in which these follies were replaced by useful observations on agriculture, or conversations on health; and its success was such that in two or three years, the editor of the Shepherd's Almanac was obliged to renounce his publication.

"In the mean while, education was the principal object of the studies and operation of the 'Society of Public Good,' and the history of its labours in this respect may be divided into three distinct branches: 1st. The researches which it excited, on the physical education of children as well as on the best method of instruction and moral education. 2d. The preparation of elementary books, to aid in putting these methods in practice. 3d. The schools which it founded, not with the intention of holding them permanently, and still less of assuming the

general charge of primary instruction, but to offer temporarily to common schools, models by which they might attain to greater perfection.

"Besides, these schools, which are destined only for those children, which the members of the society might place in them, some of its departments actually established gratuitous schools for the poor; and the greater number of them formed little libraries, with the view of affording the workmen and workwomen, after quitting the schools, the means of rational and profitable entertainment.

"Various towns, excited by the example and encouragement of the society, undertook the renovation and extension of their schools. It was thus that the magistrates of Amsterdam, following, in 1797, the advice of the two departments of that city, undertook the erection of their noble schools for the benefit of the poor that were not enregistered in any church,—schools which now include (1812) more than 4000 children of both sexes.*

"But in 1801, 1803, and 1806, the general government gave to the society testimonials of its esteem and conformed to the advice of many of its members, in the measures it adopted, at those three periods, for the reform and general organization of primary instruction.

"The law of the third of April, 1806, is still the regulation by which all the primary schools are governed.

* Amsterdam had had from 1746 but two charity schools. In 1819 there were eleven.

"The number of schools and pupils is already very remarkable. There were in Holland at the time of the union 4451 primary schools of all classes, and more than 190,000 pupils, for a population of one million nine hundred thousand souls; which constitutes one-tenth of the inhabitants, and proves that the greater part of the children of an age to go to school are actually in attendance; indeed, several of the prefects, especially that of Groningen assured us, that at present not a single young man can be found in their department that cannot read and write.

"The formal and regular instruction of the public schools consists in Reading, Caligraphy, Orthography, mental and common Arithmetic, some elements of Drawing, Geometry, and Geography, and the singing of hymns. But the books in which the children are made to read, the subjects which are dictated to them, the examples which they copy, the hymns and cantiques which are given them to chaunt, all tend to penetrate their minds, and give them, almost insensibly, an infinity of other useful knowledge.

"The composition, choice, and gradation of books, constitute the basis of the system. There is an astonishing number of them, each one having had the liberty of proposing his own: but M. Vanden-Ende has reduced, by order of the minister of the interior, a catalogue of the best, which he has distributed agreeably to their contents in the order

in which they are to succeed each other in the classes.*

"Those to be first used, are accompanied with suitable pictures for impressing on the minds of children the knowledge of exterior objects, and of connecting in their memories the words to the ideas which they represent. Next follow short moral histories or stories calculated to interest them. From these they proceed to others which treat of those objects of nature which are most curious and useful to man; processes of art most necessary to be understood, and throughout the whole are interspersed, without affectation, useful reflections on Providence, and on the duties of men to each other. Sacred history, profane history, and the history of the country, treated in such a way as to take with children, are the subjects of other little works. In some of them are explained the principles of civil and criminal law. In teaching them to draw, or rather to trace regular lines, they are made to judge of length and of angles by the eye, and equal care is taken to render all their other exercises practical and subservient to the purposes of morality and utility.

"The consequence is, that children thus taught have engraven on their minds, while simply learning to read, write, and calculate things which the scholars of ordinary schools never learn, or learn only

* Algemeene boekenlyst ten dienste der lagere Scholen in Holland. Leyden, 1818, 8vo.

with difficulty when their profession permits them to read, after leaving school, and which inspire them with just and noble sentiments, which the world will doubtless weaken, but of which it will never entirely efface the impression.

" Almost as much has been written for teachers as for scholars; the method which they are to follow, and the questions they are to put to their scholars, are pointed out in each of their respective works.

" The means contrived for instructing in religion children of every different persuasion, without exposing them to dangerous controversies, is exceedingly ingenious, and at the same time truly respectable. The particular dogmas of each christian communion is treated on Sundays by each minister in his church. The history of the New Testament, the life and doctrine of Jesus Christ, and the dogmas in which christians agree, are explained in the schools on Saturdays, when no Jews are present on account of their sabbath; but the truths common to all religions, are intimately interwoven with all the branches of instruction; and to these the others all stand related.

" The distribution of time is generally two hours in the morning, and two hours in the afternoon for ordinary scholars; and two hours in the evening for young people that have left school, and gone to some occupation, but are still desirous to be perfected in what they have learned. This evening

school is an institution of the greatest utility, not only confirming the benefits of the other, but also withdrawing the youth from infinite sources of disorder and corruption.

"It remains to be stated, how it is, that so many children are taught at once to read and write, a thing so difficult, that it is hard to imagine, at an advanced age, how it could have been acquired in childhood.

"The smaller scholars are placed on benches one behind another, and opposite to a black board. The master has his letters on small blocks which he attaches successively to the board, by grooves or any other mechanism. That which strikes and amuses children the most, is best. He directs their attention to the form of each letter, and teaches them its sound, beginning with the vowels, and proceeding to the simple sounds of the diphthongs, and then to consonants, simple or compound, which are designated by their sounds, by adding only an *e* mute. Forty or fifty children look on at once, and pronounce together; and repeat in the same manner when prepared, easy syllables and words which the master exhibits to them in the same manner. The ignorant are thus taught without the weariness of personal attention, and without the risk of being scolded. Whole words are read together in chorus, and it is then only that books are given to them, and they are made to read singly: in this exercise, they are even made to read at hazard, in order that

the eyes of all may be obliged to follow the reader.*

"Writing follows nearly the same process: forty or fifty children, furnished with little slates and pencils of talc, follow with their eyes whatever the master traces on the large board. From simple strokes they are conducted to letters, and thence, (as soon as they can name them,) to syllables and words, at first agreeably to the model, and afterwards from dictation. As they advance in orthography, they are exercised in correcting, verbally, phrases purposely written with faults, upon the board. Questions are finally put to them, which they are obliged to answer in writing, and thus they are led on to the art of composing letters and such other essays as the people have occasion to practice.

"We have stated that while they are learning to read and write, the choice of their lessons affords them an infinite number of useful ideas. Care is taken to impress these ideas on their minds by questions varied and repeated in every form. Other questions lead them to the definition and propriety of terms, and to the distinguishing of apparent syno-

* It is almost needless to remark, that the manner in which reading is taught in the schools of Holland, bears a near resemblance to that of Lancaster. It is the same with writing, but with this important difference, that in the new method, reading and writing are simultaneously taught, and consequently the children experience less difficulty, and learn more rapidly. (L.)

nymes and homonymes. Upon none of these subjects is the master abandoned to his own imagination, for the numerous books furnish him with all possible questions.

"In geography, they commence with a plan of their own city or town, drawn upon a large scale on the wall, and they are made to distinguish the cardinal points and directions of the streets. They are next shewn a map of their canton, then of their province, and thus by degrees they proceéd to the map of the world. All these maps are large, and but few places are marked upon them in order that their first ideas may not become confused; and it is only towards the conclusion that they are taught from common maps. A summary idea of the sphere finishes geography, instead of commencing it, as in almost all our books.

"What is the most astonishing, is the calmness and rapidity with which all this is executed. The master has scarcely need to speak except to ask his questions. The pupils have signs for every thing which they wish to ask for. When a question is put, all those who think they can answer it, raise a finger, and the master selects the respondent: in a word, nothing is heard but what the lesson rigorously requires.

"This tranquillity and decency of manner, are one of the principal objects of education. All the children are obliged to present themselves with hands and faces washed. In coming in, even the smallest know how to slide into their places without

saying a word. In the schools for the poor, where they are furnished with books and paper, the first on each bench, at the end of the lesson collects all that has been employed on his bench: in the other schools each child has a little box in which he places his own articles, and their ambition is excited to keep every thing in the best order. Not even a hat nail is left neglected by Dutch precision.

"These details may appear trifling, but there are none of them which do not tend to influence the habits of a whole life. Far then from despising or neglecting them, we should incline to study more profoundly all the circumstances connected with them, well persuaded that a vast number of these particulars ought to be spread into all the schools of the empire, where they would produce the most marked effects upon the manners of the lower classes.

"The attention of so great a number of children is supported by two principal means. The first consists in the choice of what is said to them, and in endeavouring to interest them. In the commencement the teachers play with them; and when once they can read, instead of giving them, as with us, only one book, and which very often they cannot understand, a variety is presented to them, which always contain something new, and adapted to their age. The second means is a mild emulation, which is carefully preserved from degenerating into unkindness. The first scholar of each bench keeps a

list of the good or bad answers of each of the others, and of all their faults. This statement is every day posted up, and the account of each day noted at the end of the week. The name of the best scholar of each class is honourably exhibited; and in a particular place also the name of the worst. When the town committee, or the superintendent of the Canon arrives, they give to the best scholars certificates which they shew to their parents. At the end of the year, also, examinations are made and prizes given. A wise employment of these means has justified the entire abolition of corporal punishments.

"One thing, however, shocked our habits in the Dutch schools; and that is that girls are admitted along with the boys. But we were every where assured that no inconvenience from it had ever been remarked; and as this custom prevails not only in the schools for the poor, but in all the village schools, where parents pay a good price for tuition, and where they might of course otherwise dispose of their children, we have been obliged to give faith to this testimony.

"Children on leaving these schools are much sought after, both for domestic servants and apprentices to trades; a proof that their education stands high in public estimation.

"Nothing further remains with respect to the history of primary instruction, than to explain in what manner schools so numerous can be furnished

with masters sufficiently capable; and it is here in a particular manner that the established system manifests itself in all its fecundity.

"They have no need of normal classes, nor of seminaries for school masters, nor of any expensive or complicated means contrived in other countries. It is in the primary schools themselves that masters are formed, and that without requiring any particular expense. The *Society of Public Good* has also the merit of having first contrived this simple and efficacious method. It grants to the best pupils gratuitous instruction, and permits them to remain in the schools two or three years longer than others, on condition of their engaging in the business of instruction. As the condition of school masters has become, by degrees, more honourable and lucrative, as the schools have advanced in improvement, the number of competitors has increased in the same proportion. Those two or three additional years of study, are employed in the enlargement and perfection of their knowledge; and these young people afterwards become assistants to their masters, and teach the younger scholars; they then pass to the station of sub-masters; and as the inspectors of the Cantons are constant witnesses of their zeal and success, they recommend them according to their merit, to places which may be vacant, and continue to watch over them for their advancement agreeably to their deserts. When there is no other mode of nomination, a rivalship of skill is instituted, and

then their merit alone recommends them. The career is so certain, that there are some, as we have been told, who pay for the privilege of commencing their trade under good masters.

"It was in 1800 that this method was employed for the first time in the free schools of Amsterdam, and there have already been obtained a first master, eight first sub-masters, and all the adjuncts actually on duty. Many instructors have also issued from these schools for places in other cities and villages."

A few short extracts further from the interesting work of Count Lasteyrie, will conclude all that is intended to be offered in the way of proofs and illustrations on this part of our subject.

"If the highest degree of instruction must give to a nation the highest degree of prosperity and happiness, it is for the interest of all that this instruction should generalize itself and increase to the greatest extent possible. What are then the means of arriving at this result? It is the *perfection* of *method*, or facility, promptitude, and economy in instruction. The monitorial system offers us these advantages in a manner more decided than the methods hitherto employed, not only in elementary education, but in its application to the sciences and arts: It is advantageous, therefore, to employ it, until the moment when a better shall be found.

"I stated in the first edition of this work, that mu-

tual instruction would one day be employed in the instruction of the first classes of society, and applied to the most complicated conceptions of the mind, and that it would render scientific instruction more general, by placing it at the portal of all the faculties, intellectual and pecuniary. Experience has already confirmed what I had foreseen: it has proved that the Latin, Greek and living languages, history, geography, grammar, geometry, drawing and music are taught more easily and rapidly than by the old method, although there has not yet been a single good work composed as a guide to masters and pupils on this system.* All the elements of human knowledge may be taught on this principle, when the means of applying them shall have been combined by a spirit of philosophical analysis indispensable in such researches. The time is not distant, when our schools will know no other instruction, than that which is founded on the principle of *mutuality*. But before this method becomes general, we must expect to have gothic prejudices and habits to overcome, passions to calm, interests to manage, and above all much bad faith to combat. The eternal partisans of *obscurantism*, the propagators of fanaticism and ignorance, would wish, if in their power, to prohibit the French from obtaining any

* With the exception of the work of M. Francœur, entitled *Le Dessin linéaire d'après la méthode de l'enseignement mutuel*, in 8vo, 5 planches. This work has been adopted in the New York High School.

instruction, and close their schools, as the emperor Julian did those of the christians whom he sought to degrade and revile. But we are no longer in an age in which the caprice of a man or of a party can bend the French nation under the most shameful of despotisms, that of ignorance and brutality.

"Besides the invaluable advantages of mutual instruction which have been exposed in this work, there is one which cannot be too much appreciated, relative to the education of the middling classes, as well as those who by their fortune occupy the highest rank; and that is the facility of acquiring in a given space of time three or four times more knowledge than can be gained by the ancient methods. This facility will not, it is true, be any motive for its adoption with certain persons; but I think there can be no man capable of estimating, as it deserves, the value of knowledge, there can be no parent really enlightened with respect to the interest and well being of his children, who will not ardently desire to bestow upon them that variety of knowledge which may be useful to them in the course of their lives, open the way for them to every kind of employment, every species of industry, to the consideration of society, to the enjoyment of an honourable and independent existence. Hence, abating other circumstances which militate against mutual instruction, it may be predicted that it will derive from paternal love its firmest support, and that from this cause alone it will eventually triumph.

"Who then are the persons among us, that will set themselves in opposition to the progress, perfection, and various applications of mutual instruction? Men, without doubt, who are prejudiced against all novelties, and whose misfortune, nevertheless, would be extreme, if they were to be deprived suddenly of the result of all the novelties which have succeeded each other since the 15th century. Why do they wish to preserve the advantages and favours which have been bequeathed to them by their ancestors, and prevent at the same time our posterity from receiving from us a richer heritage. Our predecessors made unquestionable advances in the sciences and arts, but they did not perfect every thing. *Multum egerunt qui ante nos fuerunt sed non peregerunt.** The friends of humanity ought then to exert themselves, and they unquestionably will exert themselves in the promotion of human happiness, unless they find themselves in a country where another Zaleucus shall have made a law, that if any man propose a new scheme, he must do it with a halter round his neck."

I.

The constitution of the society established at Paris for the improvement of methods of instruction, appears to be so judicious and well adapted to its object, I have thought it best to insert it entire, in the hope, that in due time, it may find imitators somewhere within our own happy government.

* Seneca, ep. 64.

Rules de "la Société des Méthodes D'enseignement."

Title I.

Objects of the Society.

"Under the conviction, that the progress of knowledge, and the perfection of the arts and sciences, are the most suitable means of meliorating the condition of man, the members of the society combine for the purpose of seeking out the best methods of education and instruction.

Article 1. "The society shall occupy itself with whatever relates to education, physical and gymnastic, moral and intellectual, scientific and productive (industrielle :) it will labour to perfect the methods of instruction.

Art. 2. "It will encourage the publication of works adapted to the aid and direction of masters in teaching, and in rendering study easy to their pupils.

Art. 3. "It shall give its suffrage to new methods which shall appear to be useful.

Art. 4. "It shall propose premiums, and ordain medals to the authors of the best works on education.

Art. 5. "It will encourage gymnastic exercises.

Title II.

Organization of the Society.

Art. 6. "The society shall be composed of members honorary, and members of the council; each member of the society shall pay an annual subscription, the *minimum* of which is 20 francs.

Art. 7. "Every six months the society shall meet in general assembly to hear the reports of the council, on the employment of the funds, and the result of its labours.

Art. 8. "To become an honorary member, it is necessary to be admitted by the council on the presentation of a member of the society.

Art. 9. "The society shall have in France and in other countries, corresponding associates, chosen from among men distinguished in the sciences, arts, or literature.

Art. 10. "The corresponding associates shall be elected by the same formalities as the members of the council.

Title III.

Organization of the Council.

Art. 11. "The council shall be composed of fifty-six members, distributed into eight committees.

1. "The committee of physical education.
2. "The committee of moral education.
3. "The committee of languages.
4. "The committee of historical science.
5. "The committee of law and political economy.
6. "The committee of mathematical science.
7. "The committee of physical science.
8. "The committee of liberal arts.

Art. 12. "No person can be a member of the council, who has not perfected a method, published some work, or communicated memoirs, relative to the objects of the society.

Art. 13. "Candidates proposed as members of the council, shall be presented by the committee, when there shall be a vacant place. The election shall take place after a report of this committee, and a discussion upon the claims of the candidates.

Art. 14. "The council shall choose a cabinet, composed of a president, a vice-president, a secretary general, two secretaries, a treasurer, and a finance committee, composed of three members.

Art. 15. "The cabinet shall be annually elected, by the absolute majority of the two first ballotings, and the relative majority of the last.

Art. 16. "The president can be re-elected only after a year's interval: other members of the cabinet are re-eligible.

Art. 7. "The different committees are specially charged, each in what concerns it in giving their advice on the merit of methods, on plans of education and instruction, and on memoirs or works submitted to the council.

Art. 18. "The council will give to teachers and persons who apply to it, information relative to methods, and the manner of their application.

Art. 19. "The council shall meet in ordinary session twice a month.

Art. 20. "Independently of the annual payment by members of the council, they shall form a private fund, by an assessment on absentees.

Art. 21. "Every member of the council, who, without reasonable excuse, shall have neglected to attend during three months, shall be considered as having resigned, and his place shall be supplied.

Art. 22. "The council shall deliberate, correspond, and act, in the name of the society; and shall have control of the funds.

Art. 23. "It may make such rules as experience shall dictate the use of, but these laws can be made only when all the members of the council have been specially convened.

Art. 24. "The council shall name immediately after the general meeting, a special committee, for reporting upon the treasurer's accounts.

Art. 25. "There shall be annually printed a statement of the funds, the manner in which they have been employed, a list of the members, and the amount of each subscription

Art. 26. "The society shall publish a collection of its memoirs."

K.

The most recent if not the most important and valuable improvement, effected by the application of Christian benevolence to the concerns of general education, is the establishment of Infant Schools. For this we are indebted to the enlightened views of British philanthropists; and I am not aware that any special effort had been made any where in Great Britain to organize an institution for infant instruction, until the experiment had been fairly and successfully tried, in the school at New Lanark under the humane direction of Robert Owen and his worthy associates. By the vigilant and discriminating attention of that individual, so distinguished for his zeal in the advancement of his plans for the

promotion of human happiness, it was fully demonstrated, that children immediately from the nursery, might be assembled together in large numbers, and so amused by various devices, all having a bearing upon their moral and intellectual, as well as physical powers, as to be rendered, from morning till night, more cheerful and happy than they generally are in the dwellings of their parents.

As it regards the labouring classes of society, it will at once be perceived that this was a most important step; for the parent (especially the mother) being thus relieved from the anxieties attendant upon the hazards and wants of her young children, is at liberty to devote her attention with greater profit to other essential concerns; while the perfect well being, happiness, and improvement of the children, fully reconcile her to the separation.

The admirable success obtained at New Lanark, did not long remain unproductive of more general good. An infant school was established at Bristol, in the year 1821, which in a short time included more than 100 children, and has been attended with the happiest results, and since that time similar schools have been created in London and other places, with a like success; and so promising of satisfaction and utility have been these establishments to those interested in them, that a society has been formed in London for the promotion of Infant Schools, and judging from the report read at the first annual meeting, in May, 1825, there can be no

question that its efforts will be attended with the most salutary consequences to the children of the working classes.

This concern has given rise to several valuable publications on the subject of infantile instruction. In "*An Outline of the System of Education at New Lanark, by Robert Dale Owen,*" (1824) the oldest son of the proprietor, it is stated (page 72) that "the general appearance of the children is to a stranger very striking. The leading character of their countenances is a mixed look of openness, confidence, and intelligence, such as is scarcely to be met with among children in their situation. Their animal spirits are always excellent. Their manners and deportment towards their teachers and towards strangers, are fearless and unrestrained, yet neither forward nor disrespectful. Their general health is so good, that the surgeon attached to the village, who is in the habit of examining the day scholars periodically, states, as the result of an examination, which took place a few weeks since; that, out of 300 children, only three had some slight complaint; and that all the others were in perfect health. The individual literary acquirements of the greater portion of the older classes, are such as perhaps no body of children of the same age, in any situation, have had an opportunity of attaining. The writer of the present article has had frequent opportunities of examining them individually; and he has no hesitation in saying that their

knowledge on some of the subjects, which have been mentioned as forming part of their instruction, is superior to his own. Their own improvement is not their only source of enjoyment. That of their companions they appear to witness with pleasure, unmixed with any envious feeling whatever; and to be eager to afford them any assistance they may require. Some of them have voluntarily undertaken when any of their companions were necessarily absent during some interesting lecture, to give them all the particulars they should be able to recollect of it, as soon as they returned home."

"To render the children tractable and happy, (says the teacher of the Infant School at Bristol, in an address to the Parents, 1823) nothing more is wanted, than particularly to attend to their various dispositions, and to soften their little passions by a strict but mild discipline. For instance, when a passionate child is brought first to the school, it generally tries with all its might to get the upper hand, by crying, or stamping with its little feet, or some such act of infantine violence. Now, instead of an injudicious soothing of its petulance, or of a severe beating which many persons would give, I generally succeed in quieting it, by bringing a very small child forward, and telling the passionate child, how good the other is,—that it never cries when brought to school—and is always happy while it is there. If the passionate child has any sense of shame, and thinks it ought

not to be outdone by so small a child, this mode is generally attended with success, and the child sits down; a little gloomy at first, it is true, but no sooner are the other children at play, than the passionate child begins to manifest a like disposition; this I encourage, and in a short time, all the turbulence of the child's temper is removed, and it becomes happy and contented like the rest. I have had children apparently of the most refractory dispositions committed to my care, whom the parents could do nothing with, without either severe chastisement or continual threatening; and yet these very children, with judicious treatment, are often the best tempered, and turn out the most tractable children in the school." *An Address by D. G. Goyder, p. 4.*

While the nature of these infant schools, as it respects the children of the poor, will probably be acknowledged, without a dissenting voice, to be very important, who can doubt that similar institutions adapted to the children of those in easy circumstances are not equally desirable? It appeared to the projectors of the New-York High-School, that there would be a peculiar fitness in extending the plan of their institution so as to embrace the general objects of an infant school, and connect them, by a natural and easy gradation, with the instruction intended for the pupils of an advanced age. This connexion, we venture to believe, will be sanctioned by experience, and found worthy of adoption

in the higher schools and *academies* of our country. The same view appears to be taken by a judicious and able writer on the subject of infant schools,—a gentleman whose time and substance has been devoted to these, among other objects of christian benevolence.

"The eventual efficiency, indeed, of the system of infant education must depend almost entirely upon the cultivation which the mind of the children afterwards receives in the parochial schools; and it derives its peculiar suitableness to the present state of society, from the active and interested attention which is now given to those excellent establishments. It would be highly desirable, that, with every school for larger children, an infant's institution should be so connected as to be under the same superintendence. The education in the latter, might, by this arrangement, be made to assimilate itself to the instruction in the former; and we might then reasonably hope, that, although it should not be esteemed desirable to increase the range of their knowledge, we should yet send forth into society a class of persons, who, beyond the acquirements of the rules of right conduct, would have their mind imbued with the love of moral excellence and religion, and their hearts prepared, under the influence of the best principles, for all 'the changes and chances of this mortal life.'" *The System of Infant Schools, by William Wilson, A. M. Vicar of Walthamstow.* 1825, *p.* 8.

"If the force of EXAMPLE, in the character of the teacher, be great, it is abundantly more effectual in the infants on each other. In the former instance they admire and cheerfully acknowledge the good influence. In the latter they attempt imitation. It is not, indeed, to be supposed, that, in an infant under six years of age, any very confirmed moral habits can be impressed. The tender thought has begun only to germinate, and it requires constant example, and the unceasing presence of favourable circumstances to encourage the growth of the rising principle, and to give it the force of an habitual determination. But, while such considerations throw some doubts over the permanent effect of this system, unless followed up by subsequent education, they seem to set before us a more reasonable hope of preparing the mind of infants for the best future habits; as an acquired evil is much more easily removed at this early age, than when the mind has approached nearer to maturity, and the example and sympathy, of which we now speak, make that cure for the present almost inevitable, as well as rapid. In an infant's school, the eye never wanders over that which is depraved, nor is the ear assailed by the language of impiety. The universal pleasure which appears on every hand, is connected with the practice of that which is excellent; and if one be introduced to the little flock, who has previously indulged some bad habit, he almost insensibly loses

the evil, in assimilating himself to the character of those around him." *Idem, p.* 17.

L.

The necessity of mingling bodily exercises with the studies of youth, in order to ensure the requisite energy of health and spirits, though universally admitted, is not, we conceive, by any means estimated in the degree which its importance demands. The belief, we apprehend, is too common, that the natural vivacity of children is sufficient to stimulate them to an abundant share of play and activity, and that it is more frequently necessary to check these propensities to bodily action, during the period of their studies, than to promote or gratify them. That there is in some children a redundancy of muscular life and motion, may perhaps be admitted; but the cases are very numerous in which habits of study, and the needful restraints of a school, beget so much listlessness, and indisposition to bodily exertion as to demand the watchful care of parents and teachers. In cities especially, where children are within a short distance of school, and the motives to walking, running, climbing, &c. are less numerous, it becomes important to introduce artificial stimulants to exercise and motion; and there can be no reason why the sports of children, so essen-

tially related to their health, should not as well be the subject of regulation and judgment, as the quantity and quality of their food.

"As respects the health of the children, the various exercises and change of place to which they are subjected by the method of mutual instruction, are not, as its opponents pretend to believe, insignificant movements. Always executed in order and without confusion, they conduct the pupils alternately from the desks to the benches, or places where their lessons are to be recited; and they have this invaluable advantage, that they afford to the children the quantity of motion which nature requires of them, and in which they are thus exempt from those diseases that are the fruits of that compulsory inactivity and repose, which they must submit to upon either of the former systems." *Rapport fait aux Conseil de l'Academie de Besançon, par M. Ordinaire, Recteur*, 1819.

It is by no means difficult to introduce into a school, at proper intervals, a variety of gymnastic and simultaneous exercises, which in addition to the necessary movements above referred to, tend to remedy the disadvantages of confinement, and promote the growth and vigour of the body. The medical friend alluded to in the address, has since obligingly furnished me with the following valuable hints and explanations:

"1. To enlarge the capacity of the chest.

Stand erect, the heel of the left foot against the inner side of the right: stretch the left side of the neck, by inclining the chin over the right shoulder. With a dumb-bell* in each hand, raise the arms perpendicularly above the head; rest the arms by allowing the bells to fall upon the points of the shoulders, then stretch out the arms to right angles with the trunk, and gradually depress them to the sides.

"In this effort, the breast boneis to rise, not by inspiration, but by the gradual action of the muscles attached to the chest and upper extremities, and those between the ribs.

"Take care to keep the spine erect, and do not allow the stomach to come forwards.

"By this exercise the form of the bust is much improved: the waist is properly narrowed by the elevation of the chest from the action of its own muscles,(not by internal pressure,) the head is better supported by the action of the muscles of the back of the neck, and not allowed to be pulled forward by those on the fore part: the important muscles of the chest concerned in respiration are strengthened; the capacity for the play of the heart and lungs is enlarged; respiration and the circulation of the blood are better performed; by the proper support

* A dumb bell consists of two iron balls connected with each other by a handle or rod of just sufficient length and thickness to be easily grasped, and firmly held.

of the chest, the liver, stomach, and organs, concerned in digestion, &c. are not improperly pressed upon: the body is better nourished and thereby invigorated: an habitual stoop is prevented or remedied.

"2. Alternate the position of the feet and head.

"3. This exercise may also be performed without the dumb-bells.

"4. To strengthen the muscles attached to the chest and shoulders.

Stand erect, bend the fore arm and hands at ease upon the shoulder, then

I. Suddenly force your arms perpendicularly upwards, by the power of the muscles of the arm and chest; gently return them to the position on commencing the effort.

II. Make the same effort at right angles with the body laterally: return the fore arms.

III. Forwards at right angles; return.

IV. Perpendicularly downwards.

"5. To act upon the same muscles by a more gradual effort.

Place your hands upon two tables, or any other firm supports, apart from each; remove the feet from the floor by bending the knees, then raise and depress the body alternately by the muscles of the chest and shoulders. The two last exercises have

considerable effect in strengthening the muscles concerned in respiration.

"6. To act upon the muscles of the chest and arms, also on those between the chest and pelvis.

Stand erect and firm, feet a little apart, with the dumb-bells, give a forcible throw obliquely across the chest with one arm; alternate the effort.

"7. To strengthen the muscles of the spine.

Stand erect, extend the arms with the hands approximated; keeping the lower extremities perpendicular, incline your body gradually forwards, with the intention of making the hands approach the floor, return gradually to the erect position.

"8. To strength the muscles on the lateral parts of the spine.

Stand erect, feet a little apart, elevate one arm, incline this arm forwards with the body to the opposite corner of the room. Alternate this motion.

Attitude and Progression.

"9. Correct attitude and progression depend in great measure on the due balance of the body by the proper action of the muscles.

10. In standing, you are to feel supported on both feet flat upon the ground.

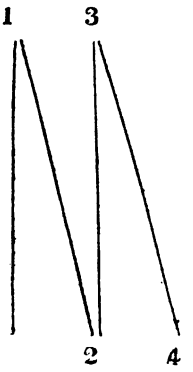
11. Many persons with slight curvature of the spine, are constantly in the habit of standing on one

leg, with a very partial support from the other. This arises from want of properly balancing the body, and is a sure way to increase deformity. It calls the muscles of one side into more than their proper share of action, while those of the opposite are less used, and consequently diminished in size and vigour.

"12. In standing, accustom yourself to feel the support or action of the muscles of the outside of the lower limbs: for want of this attention, many persons are in the habit of allowing one or both knees to incline inwards, and thus produce weakness.

"13. The ordinary stoop forwards is brought on, principally, from the muscles of the back of the neck not being allowed to counteract or oppose those on the fore part of the neck, which pull the head forwards.

"14. Walking.



1. The body previous to its advance.

2. The right foot extended, previous to the first advance of the body.

3. The body after the first advance.

4. The left foot after the first advance, prepared to proceed.

In walking, one leg is first put out; this is not to fall to the ground by its own effort, but the muscles of the pelvis and lower extremity of the other side are to force it to the ground, and immediately bring their own limb forward in a right line, and extend it beyond the other. This is the first step, which you are to continue in like manner. The foot of the leg advancing, is to be brought suddenly forwards, as though you were kicking a foot-ball.

"15. You are to keep your feet moving, as much as possible, between two parallel lines, and not allow them to spread out; if you do, waddling is the consequence.

"16. Allow your arms to hang down in a right line, shoulders to fall, breast bone to rise, head, neck, and trunk to be erect: you are not to direct any force to maintain these postures; your arms are to hang naturally and at ease; then the hands and fore-arms will have a gentle swing. The principal part of the force you use is to be directed to the muscles of the pelvis and thighs.

"17. Persons who have paid but little attention to walking, are frequently in the habit of using the right half of the body more than the left; conse-

quently the muscles of the left side, from want of use, have become weaker, and diminished in size. By bearing this in mind, and directing the attention to the left side in walking, you will soon find the vigour of the muscles increased, and be able to make both sides work equally. Carrying a weight in the left hand assists this intention.

18. "Endeavour to make the muscles of the outer side of the lower extremities, particularly those of the hip, work more than they have been accustomed to do. This will prevent or remedy weakness of the limbs, and bending of the knees inwards.

19. "Swelling near the patella, is frequently produced, by allowing the knee to give way in careless walking. It also occasions protrusion of the inner bone of the instep. To remedy these, use the following exercise.

Place the feet firm on the ground, the heels touching, the toes a little turned out, bend the knees as much as you can, making the patella pass in a right line over the ball of the great toe; gradually return the knees to the straight position, then slowly rise upon the toes, keeping the body all the while erect, and gradually return the heels to the position from which you set out. This exercise improves the strength and play of the muscles of the calf of the leg. If the knee move in the proper direction, the joint is strengthened, and the arch of the foot is preserved and improved.

20. "When sitting to read, write, or at needle work, endeavour as much as you can to maintain the erect form of the bust, and the projection of the sternum, also to keep the head and neck erect. If you habitually lean to one side more than the other, elevation of the point of the shoulder, and projection of the scapula may be the consequence.

21. "When you are fatigued with sitting upright without support, move quite back into the chair, so as to support the whole of the back and loins against the chair, and not to allow of inclination forwards.

22. "It is a great error to make delicate females sit on very high seats without backs, it is sure to cause the weakness and deformity it is intended to obviate.

23. "Endeavour to use the left hand and arm as much as you can; this will prevent or remedy the projection of the shoulder-blade, and the elevation of the point of the shoulder, which frequently result from the almost exclusive use of the right arm and hand."

M.

Although it has been the earnest wish of the principals of the High-School, in conformity to the views stated in the address, to make such provision for the

rational amusement and profitable exercise of their boys during the recess of school hours, as will most effectually answer the double purpose of physical and mental improvement, yet their attention has hitherto been so much absorbed by the various concerns of the internal organization of the schools, and by their duties as instructors, not much has yet been done, toward the completion of their schemes in relation to gymnastic and mechanical employment. It is fully intended to pursue the original design, as soon and as far as time and circumstances will justify the procedure, and steps have been taken to have a number of the fixtures erected without delay. The difficulty of procuring artists and workmen, has been a serious obstacle to the completion of several of the objects uniformly held in view.

Gymnastic exercises have for some time past been considered as an important branch of education in various parts of the continent of Europe, and the subject is beginning to claim a considerable share of public attention in England. No work has probably contributed more to this effect than the treatise of Peter Henry Clias, entitled, "*Gymnastique élémentaire ou cour analytique et gradué d'exercises propres à developer et à fortifier l'organization humaines;*" Paris, 1819. An English translation was published in London in 1823, and the author himself was employed to systematize a course of instruction in some of the government institutions. A

committee of seven was appointed by the Medical Society of Paris, to examine the work of Clias; and their report, written by Dr. Bally, is an elaborate production of 42 pages 8vo. It considers the practice of gymnastic exercises as connected with the history of medicine, and as an important branch of Therapeutics.

"However extensive," says Dr. Bally, "may be the resourses of medicine, you (the Medical Society) grieve at being unable to extend them when you reflect upon the importance of their object: in order therefore to enlarge the sphere, you have seized with avidity every occasion of acquiring new instruments of preservation, in applying to well known means the theory of motion and all the influence of muscular dynamics. Thus, at the memorable epoch in which vaccination, justly appreciated by its constant effects, increases the probabilities of life, gymnastics, better known, and more learnedly applied, will ensure the salutary influence of HYGIENE, and strengthen the precepts of THERAPEUTICS.

"Gymnastics embrace a domain without limits, since, as an art, it takes the individual at his infancy, and like a vigilant mother, follows him through all the phases of life. It does not abandon him even at the decline of his career, but with a liberal hand, opens to him the treasures of hope, in affording a perspective of greater longevity, and an old age exempt from infirmities. What subject, more

worthy of your meditations!" *Rapport, &c. p.* 8.

The report enumerates a great variety of morbid affections and incipient diseases which may be obviated or removed by skilful and appropriate exercises, and states numerous cases in which the application of this remedy has effectually restored enfeebled and lethargic patients to health and activity.

"Other observations which are more immediately connected with hygiene and therapeutics, have proved the good effects of the method. Morose children have acquired the expansion and hilarity natural to their age; a number of lymphatic subjects have gained an expressive physiognomy, and a ruddy complexion; and the weak have witnessed a rapid developement of their strength. Nothing is more common than these remarks; we have been ourselves witnesses of the happy revolution affected upon the olive countenances of two adolescents, who promptly exchanged them for more expressive features, and more lively and healthful colours." *Page* 27.

The second division of the report concludes thus:

"Finally, it is proper for us to notice the axact observance of a rule well conceived by M. *Amoros*,* a rule in which are combined all the principles of order and subordination;—the jury, composed of the most discreet and industrious boys, and the monitors chosen from among the pupils to direct and command the others. We hope that this last part of the organization of the gymnasium will receive

* A celebrated teacher of Gymnastics at Paris.

all the developement of which it is susceptible, for we are thoroughly convinced that instruction in these exercises may, without any reserve, be conducted upon the mutual system."

CONCLUSION.

It will not, we apprehend, be considered as presuming too much upon the interest which is taken in the establishment and progress of the New-York High-School, to suppose that there is a curiosity, if not anxiety in the minds of our citizens, (and in some degree in other places,) to learn the result of the trial, and to ascertain how far the practical operation of the system, after an experiment of six months, justifies the views of its founders, and satisfies the expectations of its early patrons. After the evidence which has been adduced in the preceding notes, of the nature of the monitorial system, and of its complete success in places where it has been for nearly a score of years subjected to a thorough trial, and to the most rigid scrutiny, few persons will perhaps be disposed to admit that any indications of failure or defect in the experiment we have made, (should such in any case have been apparent,) ought to be ascribed to an inherent weakness in the system itself, but rather to the difficulties of a new undertaking, or to a want of skill and energy on the part of those to whom the experiment has been fully committed. The prin-

cipals do not wish, by any means, to claim for themselves an unreasonable indulgence on the score of untried difficulties, or the hazards of a novel undertaking; although, in many parts of their organization they have had but little to govern them except those general views of the nature and value of the monitorial scheme, which are stated at large in the address. They were aware at the commencement, and have had repeated evidence since, from causes not necessary to be enumerated, that many persons even among those who entertain all possible good will to the institution, were sceptical with regard to the efficiency of the principles intended to be introduced. That these doubts, seriously entertained, and in some cases pertinaciously cherished, have more or less impeded the current of success by weakening the confidence of a few who have but little time or qualification to investigate for themselves, and especially of parents whose children, under the best possible system, can make but slow progress, was as easily to be foreseen as it may have been visible in its actual influence.

But with, or without the abatement which these and other considerations might render reasonable, the principals think that they may, with great justice state to the public, that the progress and success of the school has equalled their warmest expectations, and fully realised the hopes of all its sober-minded and discriminating friends and supporters.

At the opening of the institution on the first of

March last, although but few pledges had previously been given of a determination on the part of parents to enter their children, sufficient confidence was manifested at the close of the opening ceremonies, not only to satisfy every desire, but to excite a fear that the difficulties of introducing and establishing a system of instruction to which the pupils had never been accustomed, and relative to which the teachers themselves had something to learn, would be so great, in commencing with a large number, as to occasion no inconsiderable disappointment. The school opened on the first of March with more than 200 pupils, and continued to increase until the month of May, when the influx was so great as to fill every seat in each of the departments, affording a total number of at least 650. It continued entirely full until the extreme heat of the summer, and the approaching holidays drew off a portion of the children into the country; and now, within the third week after the re-opening of the school, the rooms are again full, and a number of applicants are on the list for admission, who cannot at present be accommodated.

To examine and to classify so large a number as that which presented itself at the beginning, and to bring the monitorial system at once into activity with boys of the best families, and in every requisite branch of learning,—Grammar, Geography, Penmanship, Latin, Greek, French, Philosophy, Mathematics,—was an affair at least of delicacy—

and which exhibited itself in perspective, to our own imaginations, as an undertaking somewhat formidable.—We entered upon our task, confident of the power of the system, and convinced that the experience of Professor Pillans, and others could not mislead us. The only disappointment we have felt, has been in the facility with which our pupils have fallen into the prescribed arrangements, their ready acquiescence, (with but few exceptions,) in the government of the institution, and the cheerful activity, industry, and order, which have characterised its varied operations. In the subordinate branches, able and experienced masters were procured, a point of great importance in the good management of the introductory and junior departments. And whatever might have been predicted with respect to the out-door deportment of six or seven hundred boys collected and dispersed twice a day, we believe it will be acknowledged, that after the mild but vigilant police of the school had time to become well understood, there has not been half the difficulty or disorder of any kind, as has frequently been experienced from schools of a tenth or twentieth part of the number. Our short experience has proved, that when good order is once well established in a very large school, a boy must possess no ordinary share of hardihood and perversity to resist the current which restrains his evil propensities, and urges him forward in the path of obedience and duty. The improved conduct and habits of the scholars in their